

Pupil Personnel, Guidance, and Counseling

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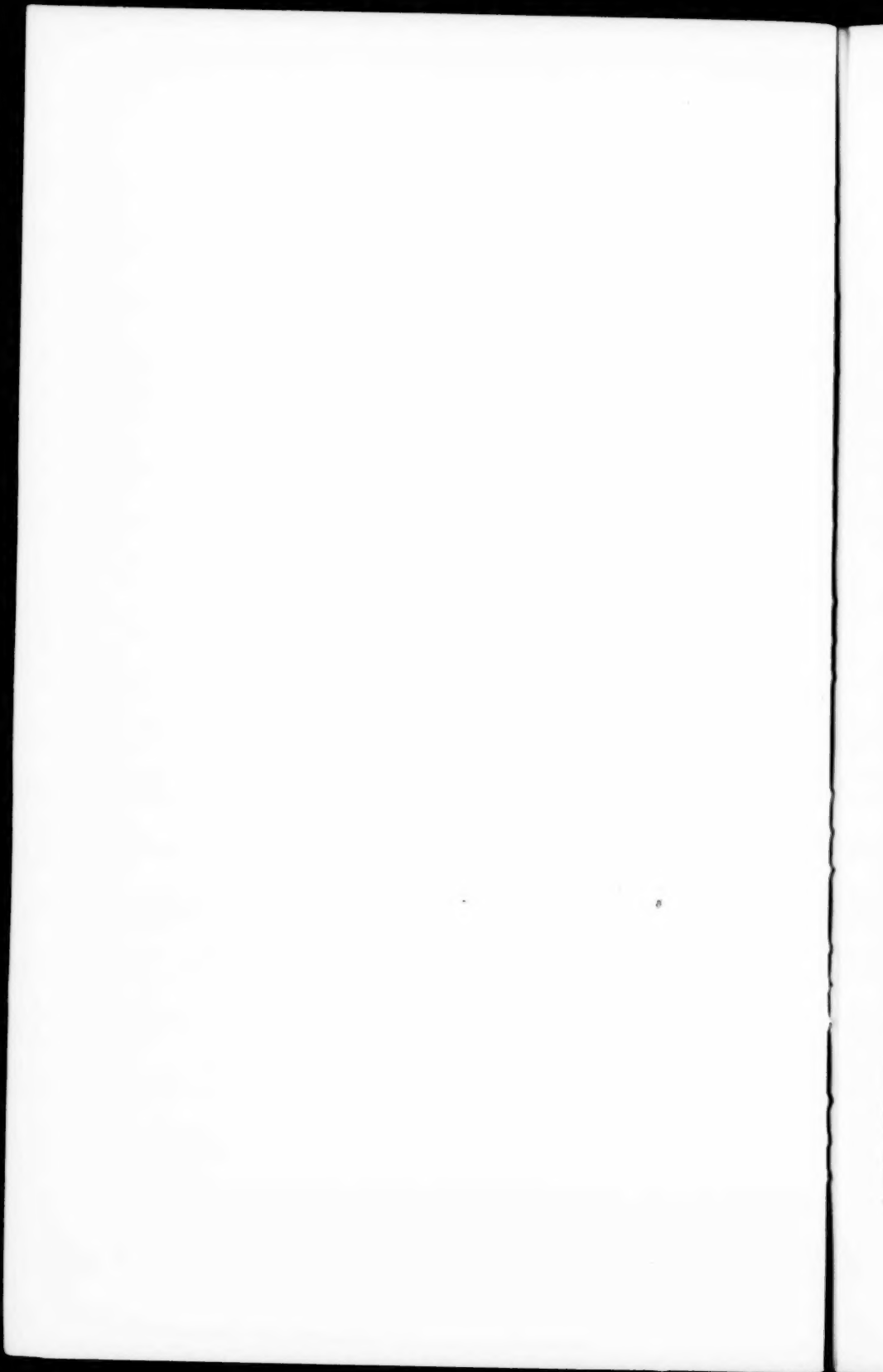
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INTRODUCTION

LIKE THE PRECEDING ISSUES devoted to pupil personnel, guidance, and counseling, this issue at the outset focuses attention on the recipient of the service—the student in elementary school, secondary school, and higher education. It seems logical to consider next certain conditions that make effective guidance possible—emotional atmosphere of the school; policies and practices with respect to attendance, promotions, pupil personnel records and reports; and the role of evaluation in improving conditions and procedures. The next two chapters deal with the two major processes of personnel work—counseling and work with groups. The fifth chapter deals with the more specialized aspect of information about educational and vocational opportunities, and the sixth with a review of guidance programs as a whole. The last chapter reviews references on the preparation of teachers and specialists, upon which the future success of personnel work largely depends.

In a sense this issue is experimental insofar as the contributors were free to introduce in their chapters certain innovations in form and treatment. Although several chapters conform to the traditional pattern of brief mention of a large number of references, others have selected a relatively small number of references for as intensive a treatment as space permits and have introduced a certain amount of orientation, interpretation, generalization, and application of the factual material to practical guidance problems. Ideally, each chapter should be written by a person who has become so saturated with the research in his area that the most significant references spontaneously come to his mind and he feels free not only to present the main facts but also to discuss their implications.

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CHAPTER I

The Students—Their Characteristics and Needs¹

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Elementary School²

PREVIOUS REVIEWS of this topic in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH for April 1936 and April 1939 treated ability, achievement, personality, and problem behavior. Trends in recent research have been toward (a) emphasizing a developmental approach to the characteristics of children and their needs in school; (b) increasing attention to the interrelations of external factors with various aspects of growth; (c) clarifying fundamental differences in philosophy in the attempt to define curriculum needs; and (d) developing new technics for studying social behavior.

Developmental Studies

As further data are accumulated in growth studies, the evidence more clearly supports the hypothesis that each individual has his unique pattern of growth. Growth curves based on numbers of individuals measured over a period of years have shown certain stable characteristics, but individual curves have fluctuated widely. Gesell (37) came to the conclusion that this apparent random fluctuation really represented an ordered variability. He found (38, 39) that individual growth was closely predictable, even in infancy, if prediction was based on adequate clinical study and not merely on quantitative test scores. Bayley (8) found, however, as other investigators have, that the predictive value of mental tests or IQ's below the age of four years is practically zero. This she ascribed to the extreme rapidity of growth and the small variability of scores below the age of two or three years.

Other major growth studies, in addition to those summarized in the April 1939 issue of the REVIEW, have been carried on with young children at Berkeley, California (56), at Somerville, Massachusetts (17), and at the Institute of Child Welfare, University of California (70). The last mentioned study corroborated others in showing that girls were physiologically more mature than boys at all ages and that at the level of the seventh or eighth grade, about two-thirds of the girls had reached puberty while two-thirds of the boys had not. Different rates of prepubertal growth acceleration caused those who developed slowly to lose prestige but did not necessarily affect emotional adjustment if immediate friends

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 16.

² This section was written by Ethel L. Cornell.

kept a similar pace. This suggests the importance of social maturity as a factor in making adaptations to the needs of pupils at the prepubertal stage. A summary of the principles of growth supported by research was given by Bell (10). See also summaries in the December 1941 *REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH*.

Illustrative of genetic studies of special aspects of growth related to the school curriculum is a study of the growth of perceptual habits in spelling by Gilbert (40). He made eye-movement records of the same pupils in learning to spell certain words in Grades IV, V, and VI. In general, the number of fixations per word and the number of regressions decreased from year to year, but the average time per fixation remained about the same. Increasing maturity was shown in greater recognition of what correct spelling involves as well as in improvement in mechanics. Millard (74) made a study of growth in reading before puberty, using the isochronic equations developed by Curtis, and checking prediction by measurement of the same pupils (55 boys and 62 girls) over a six-year interval (not less than three years for any individual). He found that growth in reading from age seven to age eleven closely approximated a regular curvilinear development, not comparable with the straight-line norms of the test, and that the actual achievement of these pupils was closely predicted by the isochronic equation. The implication Millard drew was that teaching within the usual curriculum pattern does not change the actual achievement from the predicted in any marked way and that excessive teaching can bring only superficial results.

Thus, both Gesell plotting growth curves on logarithmic charts and Millard using isochronic equations found their predictions to be valid for individual cases. Perhaps the reason for some of the apparent fluctuations reported by other investigators may lie in inadequate bases for prediction.

Influence of Nature and Nurture

Investigations at the University of Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, previously reported in the *REVIEW* of April 1939, suggested that changes in educational and social conditions might alter the rate of mental growth. Criticisms of the Iowa studies led to a re-exploration of the nature-nurture problem (73). Bayley (7, 8) studied the relation of health, physical size, body proportions, skeletal maturity, socio-economic factors, nursery-school attendance, family constellation, and observed emotional factors to rate of mental growth from the age of one month to eight years. She was unable to find any consistent relationship between any of these factors and fluctuations in mental growth, and concluded that growth in intelligence is due primarily to tendencies within the developing organism, and that individual fluctuations are the effects of changes in mental organization concurring with maturation.

One of the primary research needs for growth studies is an adequate unselected sampling of children of different ages, such as the Scottish

sampling of children aged nine to twelve on Stanford-Binet and performance tests (67). Comparable studies for American areas are greatly needed. Conrad and Jones (22) provided some normative data for a study of familial resemblances, using the somewhat homogeneous rural populations of Vermont and New Hampshire. They applied tests of "logical consequences" to various hypotheses concerning the importance of nature and nurture. They found that the facts were not fully accounted for either by any of the environmental hypotheses or by the current alternative genetic hypotheses of blending or of complete dominance. The evidence from the Thirty-Eighth Yearbook (73) indicated rather less influence of environmental factors on mental growth than may have been generally anticipated. Data are still too fragmentary to lead to unequivocal interpretations. Such interpretations as are made, therefore, continue to reflect one's fundamental philosophy.

Curriculum Needs

The cleavage in fundamental points of view on curriculum needs for elementary schools was well expressed by Melby (71), who challenged the assumption that there is "a body of subject matter, the learning of which constitutes an education" (71:439). He also asserted his conviction that education is creative living whose goal is "well-rounded growth and development of children, teachers, and parents" (71:440).

There is a trend away from the analysis of curriculum content to a study of the developmental process, and the consideration of optimum times at which to begin specific instruction. However, as Brueckner pointed out, "the fact that a particular skill . . . can be learned at a given level of development is not, in itself, a valid reason for teaching it at that level unless the evidence shows at the same time that the item meets some vital need of the learner" (15:363). Attempts to relate the curriculum more definitely to areas of living have been made by Frederick (34), Worlton (113), Seay and Clark (89), and on a statewide basis in Virginia (54). Evidence that the so-called tools can be acquired incidentally by pupils while engaged in purposeful lifelike activity was collected by Meriam (73).

A profitable type of research to complement the effort to create lifelike situations for children is that dealing with the development of children's concepts. Wasson (108) attacked this problem in kindergarten and first and second grades, in the area of understanding of home and family relations. This type of study seems to have excellent possibilities for revealing pupils' basic intellectual needs. Other studies of the growth of concept formation in children have been made by Welch (110, 111), Thompson (101), and Lord (63). A general critical review of the whole field of child development was made by Stoddard (94), and specific phases were treated in the December 1941 issue of the *REVIEW*.

Social Behavior

One trend in this area is toward devising technics for more objective analysis of observed behavior in situations which are experimentally constructed. Nursery-school experiments on aggressive behavior were continued with kindergarten children by Anderson (4). A careful observational study of changes in aggressive behavior in a limited number of nursery-school children during eighteen months was made by Fite (30), who concluded that the only technic of the teacher which appeared to fulfil the child's needs and to provide for real development in emotional control was that of helping the child to find a solution to his immediate problem without openly implying any reproof or changing the direction of his activity.

The influence of various components of the group situation on individual development will be described in more detail in Chapter IV, "Guidance through Groups." Northway (81) made suggestions for the adaptation of Moreno's measurement of group constellations in elementary-school groups. Zeleny (117) employed a similar technic in the study of individual and group morale and found that the method had a high reliability and that an increase in morale could be effected by shifting group membership.

The general area of personality study and adjustment was reviewed in the December 1940 issue of the REVIEW, in which Stevenson pointed out areas in which the complexities of modern life create conflicts and contradictions which interfere with growth, and described the essence of education as the occurrence of "inspired moments when two personalities come together with mutual growth" (93: 409). The research which seems to the reviewer to have the most important implications for elementary guidance can be summarized under two headings:

1. Accumulating evidence that individual growth follows a pattern which can be discovered if we have sufficient knowledge and adequate technics, but that a generalized pattern for all individuals, as implied by grade standards, is a very inadequate guide for individual development.
2. Accumulating evidence that intragroup relationships are a dynamic influence in the learning process, and that class and school groups might be made far more effective than they usually are in fostering desirable habits and attitudes and the integration of personality.

Secondary School ³

The rapidly growing body of research on adolescent development has been reported in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH for December 1941. Some of this research bears directly upon the practice of education, while other parts of it are related more closely to the practice of medicine, to social work, or to other services for youth which the secondary school does not provide. The purpose of this review is to report studies which

³ This section was written by Robert J. Havighurst.

have a rather direct bearing on problems of curriculum and of guidance in the secondary school.

The past three years have been notable for the large number of surveys of youth completed and reported (3, 14, 27, 65, 66) and for publications from several longitudinal studies of adolescence. The California Study of Adolescents, in which a group of 200 boys and girls were studied for eight years, from the time they were ten years of age until they graduated from high school, has been completed and its results are now appearing in a stream of publications. Another volume has appeared reporting results of the Harvard Growth Study (26). Short case studies of individual high-school students have been published by Zachry (115) and by Stolz (95). No doubt there will be more publications in case-study form of the facts of adolescent development.

The surveys of youth combine with the longitudinal studies and the individual case studies to present a picture of the life of young people as consisting of certain "developmental tasks." Zachry (116) and Bloss (11), in particular, have given currency to this way of thinking. It is argued that the secondary school, as a school designed to help meet the needs of every kind of boy and girl, should help them to achieve their "developmental tasks." Accordingly, the research studies which throw light on the nature of these tasks have been collected in this section under the following headings: "Adjustment to a Changing Body"; "Adjustment to Age-Mates of Both Sexes"; "Achieving Adult Economic and Social Status"; "Development of the Self."

Adjustment to a Changing Body

Physical growth and development during adolescence are seen much more clearly as a result of longitudinal studies of adolescents (6, 29). The California data on the growth of adolescent boys have been summarized by Meek (69). The general curve of velocity of growth among boys exhibits a "cycle of puberty" which has a duration of 4.2 to 7.5 years, begins at age 9.7 to 13.5, and ends at age 14.7 to 18.5. The pattern of growth is roughly similar for all boys, but there is a great variation in the duration and the times of beginning and ending of the "cycle of puberty." Girls show a similar pattern, but are advanced, on the average, about a year over boys. Stone and Barker (97) found that post-menarcheal girls differed significantly from pre-menarcheal girls of the same age in showing more heterosexual interest, more interest in adornment or in display of person, and less interest in active games. Reymert (84) found no relation between age at menarche and problem behavior, or between age at menarche and intelligence, among girls in a large orphanage. Letters sent by boys to the editor of a department called "Keeping Physically Fit" in a boys' magazine indicated that boys who are undersized or are late in maturing sexually tend to become worried about their "normality" during adolescence (24).

Adjustment to Age-Mates of Both Sexes

Recent research on the social behavior of adolescents has shown that the "peer culture" or the accepted ways of the adolescent age-group are important in shaping the attitudes and interests of boys and girls (13, 35, 70, 87). The school has been studied by the California group as a laboratory for social experimentation by boys and girls (96). Tryon (106) has found, through use of the "Guess-Who" technic, that boys and girls aged twelve attribute one set of qualities to those who are most popular, while the same boys and girls at age fifteen select a somewhat different group of their age-mates as the most popular and attribute somewhat different qualities to them.

Achieving Adult Economic and Social Status

Getting a job or becoming prepared for an occupation is the chief concern of high-school students, according to a study by Symonds (100), the results of which represent those of numerous other studies made during the past decade. A great deal of research on the economic status of youth has been summarized by staff members of the American Youth Commission (9, 64) and presented with the results of experiments on the occupational guidance and placement of youth. Recent studies have continued to show that most high-school students aim at occupational goals higher than those achieved by their fathers (27) and also that many more young people wish to enter the white-collar occupations than can possibly find places there (16). Super and Wright (99), comparing high-school graduates of 1928-29 with graduates of 1933 and 1935, found that those who graduated during the depression were less likely to aim above their fathers' occupational level. The volunteer work-camp movement for high-school youth has been studied and approved by the American Youth Commission (53). Carter, Taylor, and Canning (19), in a study of the use of the Strong Interest Inventory with high-school students in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades, indicated that this Inventory is probably valid and reliable for boys and girls in the eleventh and twelfth grades. A study of attitudes made by Rosander (85) in the Maryland Youth Survey showed that certain social attitudes which are closely related to behavior choices which young people have to make change with age from sixteen to twenty-four. For example, attitudes toward drinking and church attendance show such a change. But "verbal" attitudes, such as attitudes on government policy, child labor, and sex education, do not change with age from sixteen to twenty-four.

Development of the Self

The crowning task of the adolescent is to achieve a mature personality, realistically adjusted to the demands of getting along with people, of making a living, and of raising a family. This requires a consistent set

of values and ideas about the nature of the world and of man which are in accord with those values. Zachry (116), Blos (11), and Lloyd (61) have stressed this point of view as a generalization based partly on the results of the Progressive Education Association Study of Adolescents and partly on their own beliefs concerning the desirable course of human development.

Socio-Economic Status and Education

Growing emphasis has been placed by research workers on investigation of the relations between socio-economic status and educational opportunity and achievement. Rosander (86) summarized the results of several youth studies with the conclusion that economic stratification of youth due to fathers' occupations limits the educational opportunity of many young people. But he found that boys with unskilled fathers frequently hold semiskilled or skilled jobs. Hand (47) found that the cash cost of attending a city high school and participating in its ordinary student activities is so high as to discourage participation by youth from the lower income groups. Parental income is closely related to college attendance and to choice of college course, according to a study of Milwaukee high-school graduates by Goetsch (42). The courses followed by students, in order of descending parental income, are law, medicine and dentistry, liberal arts, journalism, engineering, education, commerce, nursing, industrial trades. School achievement was found by Coleman (21) and behavior was found by Springer (91, 92) to be superior for junior high-school students of superior socio-economic status.

Studies of Negro Youth

The American Youth Commission has sponsored a series of studies to find out how the personalities of Negro youth are affected by their minority-race status (25, 33, 55, 83, 107). The various authors agreed in finding that the low social and economic status of the Negro produces a poor environment, which in turn produces unfavorable personality traits in Negro boys and girls. Thus the formation and development of personality in Negroes are dependent on factors within the structure of Negro society, which in turn are influenced by the relation of Negroes as a group to white people as a group.

Mental Abilities and Reading Interests

Research on primary mental abilities has been extended from college students to high-school students, and Thelma Thurstone (102) reported that six primary factors have been found with sufficient stability to justify their use in practical test work in the junior and senior high school. These are Verbal Comprehension, V; Word Fluency, W; Number, N; Space, S; Rote Memory, M; and Induction or Reasoning, R. Correlation

between these factors is higher for high-school students than for adults. Odom (32), studying the results of achievement tests, found evidence that students' performance in the academic subjects can be predicted fairly well from test results in the tenth grade. He also found that English and foreign language scores were highly correlated, as were mathematics and science scores, thus suggesting a difference between linguistic and mathematical abilities which can be used for guidance purposes as early as the tenth grade. Studies of reading interests have been summarized by Gray (45). Brink (13) and La Brant and Heller (60, 50) have studied the change of reading interests with age of high-school students. The latter authors found a decline in the reading of narrative and a gradual development of interest in other forms of literature.

Higher Education ⁴

The growing emphasis on the study of the whole student in relation to his physical and social environment noted in 1938 has accelerated. The following review is limited to philosophical, survey, and research studies which indicate emphases and trends. Indispensable to the research worker in this area is an annotated bibliography of 2,500 titles on American youth by Menefee and Chambers (72).

Physical Characteristics

Research on physical characteristics, maturation, health, and physical disabilities in relation to the achievement and adjustment of students is extremely limited and fragmentary. Such studies as have been reported indicate that (a) about 19 percent of college men at the University of Illinois probably do not qualify for general military service (12); (b) college students at the University of Michigan are younger, taller, heavier, and have a better muscular development than in 1900 (52); (c) students have not reached skeletal maturity at entrance to college (31); (d) the incidence of physical defects in a sampling of students in a limited group of institutions is nearly 60 percent for dental defects and over 35 percent for nasal obstruction; and (e) health information and services are inadequate in most institutions (49).

Mental Ability and Achievement

The tendency to broaden the objectives and scope of research on abilities and achievement is indicated by the diminishing number of atomistic studies, by the increasing questioning of and dissatisfaction with the necessary expenditure of time and effort in the use of the multiple correlation technic, and by the increasing number of significant attempts to take cognizance of the complex relationship among background factors, personality traits, and behavior patterns. May (68) has made a critical

⁴ This section was written by Clarence Linton.

summary of research in this area and Heaton (43) has reviewed the contributions of research to the redefinition of entrance requirements. Three studies have special significance. The first is the report by Aikin (1) on the results of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. The second was made by Hale and others (46) in their study of the transition experience of college students. The third is a comprehensive study of failure made by Heaton and Weedon (49) which suggested that college instructors oversimplify the problem of failure, especially in relation to motivation and emotional factors. Traxler (105) has shown that ability to do successful college work must be viewed in relation to the abilities represented in the student population and the standards of the particular institution. Ryans (33) found that students are able to predict their scores in advance on the National College Sophomore Tests. Reports on several studies of reading abilities and the results of remedial techniques have indicated that many college students need assistance and that they can greatly increase reading efficiency in both speed and comprehension, but more in the former than the latter. Anderson and Dearborn (5) found reading ability and achievement positively related independently of intelligence.

Beliefs and Attitudes

Much of the research on the beliefs, attitudes, opinions, and morale of college students is inconclusive. Murphy and Likert (76) made a study of student attitudes on public questions in seven colleges and universities followed by a retest five years later. The authors suggest that the next steps in attitude research should be through diaries, interviews, and biographical data. Other studies indicated that there is relatively little change in attitudes and beliefs during college, but that this change is in the direction of greater liberalism. Katz and Cantril (57) found that Princeton students accept Communist ideas more favorably than Fascist ideas, reject both labels, and that the Communist label carries more stigma. Ability to define communism and fascism appears to have little effect on attitudes. Edgerton (28) found women more liberal and consistent than men, a larger negative relationship between uncertainty and liberalism than between uncertainty and conservatism, suggesting that those who hold liberal views develop an emotional condition to support their opinions. Nelson (30) reported that there is a positive relationship between the vocational choices of students at the University of Nebraska and their attitudes. Those who have chosen banking, dentistry, music, and governmental service are more conservative than those who have chosen journalism, social work, law, and agriculture. Men and women from denominational colleges are more favorable to marriage than students in the University of Iowa. There is a trend toward a growing indifference to sex purity, a lifting of the taboos among women on sex attraction, a decline of religious interest, and an expressed desire for

fewer children among college and university students (79). An extensive sampling of college graduates shows that about 84 percent of the men and 46 percent of the women forty years of age or over are married. The average size of families of the men is 3.22 and of the women 3.13 as compared with 4.05 for the total population (103). Miller (75) found the following six factors positively related to the morale of college-trained adults: age, size of income, occupation, regularity of income, stability of employment, and hours worked per week. He suggests that it is possible to predict morale if the major factors associated with morale can be identified.

Personality

Watson (109) has critically reviewed the research on personality adjustment and suggested desirable emphases and directions. Zachry (116) and Bloss (11) have provided a wealth of case material on adolescent behavior from the Progressive Education Association Study of the Adolescent. Lloyd-Jones (61a) has prepared a brochure on social competence and college students.

In his study of the transition experience of college students, Hale (46) identified and defined four behavior patterns which characterize the successful personality and largely determine college success: (a) a purpose pattern; (b) a social pattern; (c) a decision pattern; and (d) a sensitivity pattern. These patterns are defined as groups of interrelated habits developed in previous experience which predispose the individual to act in characteristic ways. Many other studies noted in this review and particularly those of Bloss (11), Heaton and Weedon (49), Miller (75), Murphy and Likert (76), Wrenn and Crandall (114), and Zachry (116) support Hale's findings in general if not in specific patterns.

Vocational Interests and Choices

Three noteworthy contributions to the research literature in this area have been made during the past three years. Cowley, Hoppock, and Williamson (23) have provided an authoritative brochure on the need for and the principles of occupational orientation of college students, Bell (9) has studied the occupational adjustment of youth, and Larwin (64) has surveyed youth work programs.

Several studies have been focused on the occupational attitudes, aims, and choices of students. The findings of these studies emphasize the need for education for work as one of the central aspects of general education and the necessity for vocational guidance at the college level. Sisson (90) found that urban or rural residence is an important factor in conditioning vocational choice and that vocational choices of rural freshmen at the time of admission seem somewhat less stable than the choices of urban freshmen. A study of the U. S. College Graduate by Time, Inc. (103)

provided data on the employment, occupations, and income of college graduates in relation to the total population, indicating that over 60 percent of the men and over 80 percent of the women enter the professions or governmental service and that their incomes average over twice as high as those of the total population.

Problems

Three significant studies of education for family life (2, 32, 43) indicated the growing awareness of the problems of adjustment arising from family life and the necessity of more effective sex education and preparation for marriage. Lloyd-Jones and Fedder (62) have prepared an authoritative book on the social problems, needs, and processes of social and emotional maturation of the young adult. Kirkendall (58) has made case studies of the sex adjustment of college men in one institution which indicates the need for group instruction and individual counseling. In an extensive study of high-school seniors in Ohio, Toops (104) found the following factors predictive of college going: (a) the geographical region of the home; (b) religion of the family; (c) education of parents; (d) occupation of father; (e) participation in extracurriculum activities in high school and honors thus received; and (f) intelligence of the individual. Goetsch (41) found that about three out of four high-school graduates in Milwaukee who did not go to college did not do so for lack of financial resources and that about half of those who did go to college expected to earn a part or all their expenses. In a study of freshmen at the State College of the University of North Carolina, Winston (112) found that over a four-year period four-fifths of all freshmen reported the necessity of earning a portion of their expenses, one-half expecting to earn at least one-half of their support. Super (98) reviewed the studies and literature on employment of college students and concluded that a thoroughly integrated plan of work and study would be advantageous to students from the point of view of vocational training and academic motivation, but that this appears to be impossible of realization.

Such studies provide convincing evidence that youth of college age are faced with many crucial economic, social, and personal problems which probably are given but slight consideration in the instruction which they receive. The factors affecting emotional adjustment and achievement in relation to the abilities, interests, and needs of college students appear to offer fruitful fields for further research. It should be emphasized that the need is for follow-up studies of drop-outs and graduates which take cognizance of motivation and behavior patterns.

These studies all contribute to the basic conclusions that abilities are complex and highly individualistic and that the most fruitful research will probably be in the longitudinal study of behavior patterns of the individual by means of a combination of records, tests, counseling, and evaluation—technics which enlist the interest and participation of the student himself.

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CHAPTER II

Conditions That Make Effective Guidance Possible¹

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Introduction

FEW TOPICS FOR RESEARCH IN EDUCATION are unrelated to the quest for improved methods of guidance. Hence, the content of this chapter has necessarily been selective, stressing those phases of the REVIEW cycle that have not been treated especially from the standpoint of improving the conditions necessary for effective guidance.

One of the essential needs of the school environment is an emotional climate that will support optimum growth and be conducive to effective guidance. With the possible exception of the child's parents, a classroom teacher has the greatest single opportunity to influence personality development and personal-social adjustment. Prescott (115) enumerated the factors that may account for an unwholesome emotional climate as a social tradition which results in a belief on the part of the public that the function of the schools is to bring children to a mastery of "subjects" of study, and in a conviction that the way to a rich life and to good citizenship is through progress in specific learnings; administrative practice resulting in an administrative hierarchy which determines the working conditions of teachers and thus influences the morale of schools; a teacher personality created by conditions which give a teacher neither security nor status, and which demand that a teacher value the academic accomplishment of boys and girls more highly than their personality development; and educational theory which has become merely a device for achieving the traditional objectives of factual and skill learning.

A sense of really "belonging" to a group is a psychological imperative in the creation of an atmosphere for effective, worthwhile learning; the hygienic classroom is one permeated by a spirit of camaraderie, friendliness, sympathetic concern, and genuine affection (166). Ryan (129) advised that such an atmosphere is within the reach of ordinary teachers and that it does not necessitate elaborate equipment. He held that it should include opportunity for the teacher to give each pupil a task commensurate with his nature and abilities and to provide wholesome social relations. From the teacher it demands maturity, social adjustment, good mental health, and an understanding of child and adolescent psychology. Ryan finds significant evidences of good mental health practice in some places, in others a serious discrepancy between what is done in school and what is conducive to good mental health. He makes this startling statement

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 37. Acknowledgment for assistance in the preparation of the bibliography is made to Elizabeth Cameron, William M. Duncan, and William Metzner.

which every teacher might well ponder: "Simple friendliness in the schoolroom would seem to be one of those easily obtainable and obviously desirable conditions for any human enterprise having to do with mental good health, but the visitor to schools finds it in shockingly few of the places he visits."

There is a scarcity of literature presenting comparative descriptions and educational results obtained in different school atmospheres. Lewin, Lippitt, and Escalona (94) found that the quality and quantity of the work done in the democratic atmosphere were superior. The autocratic leader found it necessary to assume more responsibility, while the democratic leader assumed less. When boys and girls were interviewed concerning their preference in social atmospheres, there was no hesitancy in the 95 percent choice for democracy. As a second choice, 70 percent preferred laissez-faire to autocracy. Democracy is, then, the psychological environment which best develops friendliness, cooperation, initiative, responsibility, and objective skills—it is that in which boys and girls are most likely to learn.

Recent reviews of research related to discipline are found in the REVIEW cycle (97, 151) dealing with the topics of drives and incentives; punishment; fears; adjustments and treatment; adolescence; mental hygiene and democratic principles; mental hygiene and education; child psychiatry; family background and child adjustment; home background and adjustment in school; providing school environment conducive to mental health; teachers' knowledge of mental hygiene; influence of mores and traditions; motion pictures, radio; problem children, delinquency and treatment; technics and instruments of mental hygiene diagnosis and therapy; pre-psychotic personality.

Strang (142) summarized research on discipline from the standpoint of (a) history of concepts of discipline as, period of compulsion, period of competition, period of development; (b) merging of "discipline" with child study, adjustment, guidance, individualization, and mental hygiene; (c) listing of scientific studies as follows: laboratory experimentation on effects of reward and punishment on learning and of success and failure on level of aspiration, studies of children's and parents' attitudes toward punishment, classroom experiments and demonstrations, clinical studies of disciplinary cases; and (d) evidence that the "newer" discipline works. In the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (101) pertinent research is reviewed under the topics: "Problem Children and Delinquency"; "Character Education"; "Effect of Environment on Personality and Social Behavior"; "Relationship between Body Type and Behavior"; "Growth of Moral Concepts and Conduct"; "Growth in the Emotions"; "Growth in Social Development"; "Disciplinary Procedures with Student Personnel in Colleges and Universities"; "Mental Hygiene Services"; "Juvenile Delinquency"; "Mental Hygiene"; "Classroom Motivation"; "Motivation"; "Personality"; "Philosophy of Education"; "Traits and Qualities Essential to Success in Teaching."

Specific attention is given in sections that follow to the problems of attendance, promotion, personnel records and reports, and evaluation, as phases of the problem of providing conditions that make guidance possible.

School Attendance²

Research in previous trienniums (68) pointed to several tendencies in the field of school attendance. Among these tendencies were (a) a decline in elementary-school enrolment; (b) large increases in secondary-school enrolment; (c) increases in the regularity of attendance of children enrolled; (d) increased efforts to determine causes of nonattendance; (e) increasing recognition of the importance of causes for nonattendance other than illness; (f) increased attention given to home conditions, general social conditions, and the general adaptability of local schools to meet the needs of pupils as the real factors determining the regularity with which pupils attend school; (g) increased demands for trained attendance workers; and (h) an increased need to coordinate all school services that specialize in the study of pupils aimed at effecting their adjustment. Most of these tendencies continue to be noted, during the triennium covered by this review, in the volume of nonresearch articles dealing with attendance problems and by some of the reports on research; other reports of a research nature hark back to earlier theories.

Enrolment

The decrease in combined elementary- and secondary-school enrolment that appeared for the first time in the biennium of 1935-36 continued through both the following bienniums. The decreases for the more recent bienniums were markedly greater than the first decrease. These decreases in enrolment, however, failed to keep pace with the decreases in child population, ages five to seventeen inclusive; this is shown by the constant increase in the ratio of enrolment to child population, which rose 2.3 points during the 1939-40 biennium (52, 53).

Elementary enrolment definitely continued its decrease which began in 1931 with a drop of about 70,000; 1932 showed a similar decrease. The following four years—1933, 1934, 1935, and 1936—showed decreases of nearly 200,000 annually; the next four years showed decreases of about 350,000 annually (52, 53). These decreases have continued, therefore, at a somewhat accelerated pace.

The secondary-school enrolments, on the other hand, are still on the increase, but the rate of increase slowed down perceptibly during the years 1933-1938. The increases during the two latter years in this period were reduced to approximately 125,000 annually. The recent data for 1940, however, based upon fairly complete reports, indicate a slight upward surge again in secondary-school enrolments (52, 53).

² This section was written by Arch O. Heck and William R. Flesher.

Attendance

Average daily attendance in both elementary and secondary schools in the United States reached its peak in 1934 with the total of 22,458,190. Each biennium since has seen successive decreases, although the decrease of 1938 under 1936 was almost negligible. The decrease of 1940, based upon extensive sampling, indicates the greatest decrease for any biennium; the figure reaches almost a quarter of a million.

These decreases in average daily attendance, however, are less than the corresponding decreases in enrolment; this is shown by the fact that percentages of attendance continue on the increase. The percentages of attendance for the United States in 1940 reached the all time high of 86.1 (52, 53).

Factors Influencing School Attendance

Reports of research during the triennium 1939-1942 emphasize several factors that seem to be related to regularity of school attendance. Williams (163) brought distance to the fore, once again, as an important factor in attendance. In this respect, his report is the most significant since Reavis made his report on factors affecting rural-school attendance. Williams' approach to the problem is quite different from Reavis', however. Williams was particularly concerned with the extent to which elementary-school graduates attended and continued in high school, while Reavis was interested in the regularity of their attendance. Williams concluded that "the data indicate quite clearly that the distance children live from a high school is a factor in their starting to high school" (163:95). He found, however, that about the same number who started high school completed it regardless of distance; the percentage that completed the high-school course, after once getting started, was 74. Williams (163) also related the type of the school district to the holding power of the school. The general conclusion was in favor of the consolidated district over the rural- or the city-school district. Approximately 90 percent of elementary-school graduates in consolidated school districts entered high school and 75 percent graduated; for city districts these percents were 90 and 66; for rural districts they were 60 and 50.

From his study of regularity of school attendance, Calloway (22) concluded that "children having physical defects reported by the school doctor are absent more often than those not having defects," that "diseased children are absent longer periods of time than those ill occasionally," that "home conditions are controlling powers in school attendance and health," and that "an inverse relationship exists between socio-economic status, health, and school attendance."

Jelsma (77) concluded that "one of the most important influences on attendance is the compulsory attendance law that has been legally enacted in Oklahoma" (77:66). She says further that "of importance in the progress of school attendance was the more accurate scholastic census"

(77:67). Among other factors that she rates as of importance are (a) consolidation of rural schools, (b) improved certification procedures governing appointment of teachers, (c) better programs of study for pupils, and (d) the widespread development of specific vocational training.

Reniers (126) re-emphasized laxity in the development of procedures for enforcing attendance as an important cause of nonattendance. She particularly pointed out the laxity of teachers in keeping records of nonattendance and in reporting promptly all cases of nonattendance. She also cited the failure of attendance workers to invoke legal penalties upon children, employers, and parents as real causes of nonattendance.

Surveys of causes of nonattendance—Findings as to factors related to school attendance are perhaps the results of procedures followed. Most of these surveys represent mass-survey technics as opposed to case studies for determining why pupils are irregular at school or do not attend. They point to certain accompanying factors; they never make clear causal relationships.

Reniers (126), for example, studied thousands of excuses given by pupils and parents. She also sought by questionnaire an explanation from the pupils of reasons for absences. Another questionnaire, completed by teachers, indicated what they thought to be the chief factors affecting school attendance. Jelsma (77) used a historical approach. She assembled data on enrolment and attendance for each of the eight state school administrations in Oklahoma from 1907 to 1938; these data showed marked increases during this period. She, likewise, found that improvements had occurred in the attendance laws, the school census, teacher certification, and the like. She concluded that these factors were, therefore, related to attendance. Calloway (22) studied two large elementary schools at Atlanta, Georgia. One represented a very poor section of the city, the other a typical better class community. She found more absence and more sickness in the elementary school in the poor section of town. Williams' study (163) included 61 percent of all eighth-grade graduates in Iowa for 1932. These children represented 69 of Iowa's 99 counties.

Perhaps the greater need, from the point of view of procedures in determining causes of nonattendance, is continued emphasis on case studies. The relating of various factors to attendance by the survey technic has its value, but before any real attack on causes of nonattendance can take place, the attendance worker must know why William or Mary has been absent. The case-study technic might well be used by research workers during the immediate future in further attempts to unearth causes of nonattendance.

Means of Improving Attendance

These studies of school attendance (22, 77, 126, 163) suggest a variety of procedures that might improve attendance. Williams (163) pointed to the establishment of consolidated schools; Jelsma (77) suggested im-

proved attendance and census legislation, better certification for teachers, consolidated schools, and the like; Reniers (126) asked that teachers record and report attendance more accurately, attendance officers enforce legal provisions for attendance, and theaters observe state legislation; Calloway (22) urged better health facilities and better socio-economic conditions in the home.

These measures all suggest a more enlightened public opinion. Is it not possible that improvement of these social conditions would result in better school attendance? In other words, as was reported in the corresponding issue of the REVIEW during the last triennium, the "causes of nonattendance are not simple and easily detected factors but represent combinations in varying degrees of many social conditions and relationships not readily noted or controlled. Both the remedy and the prevention of nonattendance mean, therefore, that the best of case-study technic must be put into operation, and that programs of education affecting pupils, teachers, parents, and the community must be so developed that the social conditions underlying nonattendance may be remedied" (68:168).

Administrative Organization

The best piece of research it has been the writer's privilege to examine during this triennium dealt with administrative organization for attendance work. Wiens (162) in this investigation combined the survey technic with the case-study approach. His problem covered more than attendance service; it raised the question as to how school systems might best organize all those special services aimed at the study of pupils and at an attempt to help children adjust socially, mentally, vocationally, educationally, and morally. These services include attendance service, health service, psychological service, guidance service, and visiting teacher service.

Wiens visited and conferred personally and at length with school administrators in many city school systems of 100,000 population and more. He gathered further data from the remaining cities of 100,000 and more by questionnaire.

With the exception of Wiens' investigation, the emphasis during the last triennium has been predominantly administrative, with an increased use of the case-study approach. The problem of school attendance should be attacked from the pupil-personnel or guidance point of view.

Promotions³

Recent Reviews

Research on topics closely related to promotions was reviewed in recent publications as follows: promotion periods, acceleration and retardation

³ This section was written by Hans C. Gordon.

in elementary schools (101); pupil failure and promotion in secondary schools (101); factors contributing to maladjustment and failure (90); acceleration of the mentally gifted (107); treatment of the mentally handicapped (33); practices in pupil promotion and progress (124); physical-mental relationships in child development; physical characteristics of the retardate; marks and marking systems; motivation; philosophy of education; school progress (101); administrative provision for individual differences (92).

Reducing the Incidence of Nonpromotion

Some school systems are avoiding the question of promotion or nonpromotion by making promotion automatic. In one study (72) of the practices in 24 cities in the population group of over 100,000 there were three cities in which promotion was automatic, five in which it was partly so, and sixteen in which promotion was not automatic. Saunders (130) summarized questionnaire returns of 23 city-school superintendents by stating that it is evident that many school superintendents believe in 100 percent promotion policy, but few practice it. The three-year unit for the first three grades automatically avoids the issue for those grades (161). Reinhoehl (125) reported that three-year units were tried in Rochester, Los Angeles, Nashville, Minneapolis, and Pittsburgh. Reduced failures with annual promotions were reported for cities in which the annual promotion plan has replaced the semiannual: Omaha, Nebraska (32); Hartford, Connecticut (54); Scarsdale, New York (137).

Some school systems include programs designed to improve the teacher's understanding of pupils and thereby reduce the incidence of nonpromotion. Such is the Chicago senior high-school program described by Bell (12) and Johnson (82). The Chicago high-school teachers recommended more special schools, departments, and classes; revision of the marking system; better provision for individualized instruction; and more effective motivation. In the plan for failure prevention each teacher had a daily advisory period in which to confer with failing students. Arrangements were made to adjust the work in the regular class and to have pupil tutors. Each prospective failure had a failure card on which teacher and pupil gave reasons for failure and plans to prevent it. This card was checked and signed by the principal and the parent. Substantial reductions in failure rates were reported as the result of the plan.

A junior college plan to retain failing students on probation was reported by Dement (35) to be successful, with the restoration of 98 of a returned group of 127 students. One city (127) changed from a policy of promotion on the basis of achievement to one of moving pupils through the grades at the normal rate, retarding only individuals who would profit by retardation. This was reported to have resulted in better achievement, reduced over-ageness, and a reduction in elementary-school population with consequent savings on salaries and school accommodation costs.

Asfahl (5) reported faculty discussions resulting in the statement of policies such as, "Minimum achievement of standards, although significant, shall not be the sole determining factor in promotion." Emphasis on the teacher's considering all factors involved in determining promotion was assured by a questionnaire report from each teacher for each pupil who was likely not to be promoted (167). This questionnaire included such items as "Would a change of teachers be desirable?" "Would \$60 be well spent to have the child repeat?" A useful way of understanding the learning problems of disinterested and retarded children is to visit the homes of the children (73).

Programs for Slow-Learning Children

Plans for segregation of slow-learning children were described in a number of reports (3, 16, 23, 24, 36, 59, 73, 81, 83, 99, 100, 117, 133, 140, 159). In general, the work of the segregated groups was different not only in difficulty and quantity of formal school training but also in types of activity offered. Activities of a handyman character (83), emphasis on visual materials and the resources of the community (117), family arts and the home (36, 159), and retailing (16) were provided. A recent questionnaire study (79) showed that 39 of a total of 58 cities with populations of over 100,000 reported the organization of low ability classes. These classes constituted only 1 percent of the total school enrolment. Organization of such groups seemed to be more characteristic of the larger cities than of the smaller. The most common name applied to such classes was "prevocational," although "ungraded," "special," "adjustment," "occupational," and "opportunity" designations were given. Satisfaction with such classes was indicated by 32 of 39 cities reporting. Cowen (30) provided a list of occupations employing pupils who are normally retarded in the traditional school curriculum.

Programs for Students of Superior Ability

In general, acceleration for students of superior ability was not favored by high-school principals (105). On the other hand, the practices in three large cities permitted acceleration for superior students to the extent of gaining a year in Grades IX to XII (29, 37, 105, 160). The opinions of psychologists substantiated the point of view that a pupil who is unusually mature physically and socially as well as mentally can profit in every way from a moderate degree of acceleration (105). It may be desirable to accelerate in some areas and to enrich in others. Thus, in one conference (148), in which this matter was considered, many agreed that acceleration was better for capable students in sequential school subjects such as mathematics, and that enrichment was better in content subjects such as history and social sciences. The usual procedure permits students of superior ability to be accelerated in elementary schools and to progress only at a normal rate in high-school grades. It may be desirable

to reverse this procedure by providing both reasonable acceleration and enrichment in special classes in the elementary grades, and rapid progress in the secondary schools in the regular curriculum without segregation (105). One study (56) indicated that accelerates succeeded well in college with high average scholastic marks and a high degree of participation in the social activities of the college. Four-fifths of the accelerated young people believed acceleration was good for them. Accelerated students were at least equal in social adjustment to nonaccelerates of the same age (44).

Evaluations of Promotion Policies

Cook (27) reported a study of 312 potential failures in December 1933 in St. Paul. Groups equated with regard to chronological age, Kuhlmann-Anderson IQ, and achievement scores were selected. Half of the pupils were promoted and half of them were failed. A total of 32 comparisons of achievement test means were made between the promoted and failed groups, and the final score was a tie. Sixteen differences were in favor of the passed groups and sixteen in favor of the failed groups. From this it was concluded that as far as achievement is concerned the crucial issue appears to be not whether the slow-learning pupil is passed or failed but how adequately his needs are met wherever he is placed. No promotion practice, be it universal promotion or the maintenance of high achievement standards, really comes to grips with the vital problem, namely, that of furnishing each teacher with adequate instructional materials, teaching procedures, and a point of view which will enable him to cope with a range of ability of from six to ten years in his classroom.

Cook (26) also reported a study in Minnesota involving nine pairs of schools matched in social and economic status, and in training and years of experience of the teachers. In each pair there was one school in which retardation was relatively high (0.8 years) and another in which retardation was relatively low (0.3 years). The following differences were discovered: (a) the average IQ level in the upper grades of the schools with high retardation was reduced by the presence of over-age, low-IQ pupils; (b) pupils of equal mental ability achieved no more in schools with high standards than in schools with low standards; (c) the range of specific abilities was no greater in schools with low retardation; (d) there was some evidence that in every subject except arithmetic the adjustment of instruction to the ability of the child was superior in the schools with low retardation.

Correlates of Success and Failure in Schoolwork

There were two studies involving consideration of numerous data for each student in a failing group compared with similar data for each member of a successful but otherwise comparable group. Conklin (25) reported upon the failures of pupils with IQ's of 130 or over in a Brooklyn high school. The study included a control group of pupils with similar

IQ's who were not failing. By an interesting technic of determining potentials of maladjustment and potentials of adjustment, an impressive amount of data was studied for each individual. The data included school records, physical examinations, psychological examination (three mental ability tests, a battery of language and nonlanguage tests, and a battery of personality tests), a set of seven questionnaires, a visit to the home, student diaries, a psychiatric examination, and a study of family backgrounds. In spite of the large number of potentials of maladjustment and of adjustment studied, relatively few potentials were able to differentiate the failing from the nonfailing group. The chief factors distinguishing the failing group were as follows: (a) girls (but not boys) lacked interest in activities known to characterize studious people; (b) there were certain maladjustments in the mothers' personalities, faults in the discipline employed by the home, and disapproval by the parents of the child's selection of companions; (c) the combination of a typical family and faulty familial discipline and filial relationships apparently produced an undesirable effect. The sharpest distinction between the failing and nonfailing groups was made by the psychiatrist in his suggestions concerning therapy. The study indicated that people may have a considerable number of strong potentials of maladjustment and still adjust. Some potentials of maladjustment do not eventuate in actual maladjustment, and some potentials of adjustment do not eventuate in successful adaptation.

A study was reported by Heaton and Weedon (67) of probationary students in four small middlewestern colleges by a plan designated as cooperative. In this plan the investigated students worked with the investigator in planning and carrying out the study and in interpreting the results. The following advantages were claimed for the cooperative plan: (a) there was greater validity in the findings because students understood what was wanted; (b) the question of establishing rapport was not even raised because the students themselves decided that certain things should be investigated; and (c) aspects of student experiences about which it is ordinarily difficult to obtain information (personal finances, family relationships, social and emotional problems) were investigated readily. Here again relatively few of the numerous data studied showed real differences between the probationary and the semicontrol group. Frequency-of-practice scores for a group of study habits were not adequate for distinguishing between the successful and the failing groups. In another investigation (18), differences in study habits did not distinguish between failing and successful students in the first two years of college.

Failure at one level continued to be associated with recorded failure at lower levels (19, 70). This is to be expected if the carefully controlled experiment of Sears (131) is to apply in classroom situations. Sears studied the levels of aspiration of successful and unsuccessful children for certain tasks in arithmetic and reading by varying artificially the degree of success in previous similar tasks. She found that successful children set their levels of aspiration more accurately than did the

unsuccessful. The unsuccessful child either set goals too high, hoping thereby to get commendation for his effort, or he set goals too low, trying to get commendation for achieving his goals even when they were lower than socially acceptable levels. A number of reports listed the causes of failure given by students and teachers. In general these "causes" were probably symptoms of more basic maladjustments. Most teachers gave high rank to lack of effort, poor attendance, lack of ability (43, 71, 32). From the pupil's point of view, failure occurred most frequently because of lack of interest, poor home conditions, insufficient study, and dislike of subject (43). From this, the importance of student interests is evident.

Failing students (31) were more interested in mechanical things and in the pursuit of personal pleasure and immediate satisfactions than in striving for ultimate and more distant satisfactions. Problem cases stayed out late at night more frequently, did less homework, drove automobiles for pleasure to a greater degree, and attended more shows. Klein reported (91) that failing students like vocational subjects most and academic subjects least.

Pupil Personnel Records and Reports ⁴

Improved records are not ends in themselves. Records, no matter how complete, are not a substitute for that personal knowledge and understanding which are attained only through intimate association of counselor and pupil in a common effort to solve problems. The utility of records lies in their ability to foster a more complete understanding of pupils and their problems.

Recent summaries of research on pupil personnel records and reports are provided in the REVIEW under the headings of "School Records and Reports" (60), "Personnel Records" (51), "Recording" (84), and "Autobiography and Life History" (144). There are additional summaries in the Encyclopedia (101) under the headings of "Pupil Records and Reports," "Marks and Marking Systems," and "Colleges and Universities: Personnel Records."

Preparing Record Forms

In the preparation and revision of record forms, a preliminary procedure frequently used is to assemble record forms from other school systems. Such was the procedure followed for the schools of California (17) in which 527 forms were studied, and a provisional form was made up and evaluated by 410 educators. A variation of this procedure is reported (10) in which employment application blanks were procured from twenty-five large corporations. A composite blank was made and used for the students of a junior college. New record forms or desirable revisions are described in a number of reports (10, 34, 39, 93, 106,

⁴ This section was written by Hans C. Gordon.

114, 143, 150). In general, the changes tend to emphasize personality description, anecdotal records, interests, out-of-school activities, and achievements as material for guidance interviews in addition to data normally required for school organization.

Items Included in Cumulative Personnel Records

Items included in cumulative personnel records were described in a number of reports (11, 17, 34, 38, 58, 85, 89, 98, 128, 138, 143, 149, 150, 158, 170). In some cases the cards were described as being used successfully over a number of years or as newly introduced forms. In addition to the usual items of attendance, marks, and credit needed for formal transcripts these records mentioned the following additional items: family and cultural background (11, 17, 39, 128, 138, 143, 150, 158); scores in psychological tests, either recorded in graphic form or as a numerical record (11, 34, 58, 128, 143); personality and character ratings (11, 34, 98, 138, 143, 150); extracurriculum activities (11, 34, 128, 143, 150, 158); students' statements of abilities, likes, dislikes, interests, plans, reactions, and problems (89, 128, 138); physical and mental health (11, 34, 89, 128, 150); sex attitude and civic attitude (158); records of conferences (11); special talents evidenced by actual accomplishments (128); space for notes and remarks (89, 150, 158); and anecdotal records (11, 34, 38, 85, 98, 101).

Anecdotal Records

Descriptions of incidents of behavioral significance assumed increasing importance in the list of reported research on personnel records. The pioneering experiences of the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute were reported by Jarvie (76). This study described the development of a master list based upon anecdotal records. This list was suggested for possible use with large class groups such as are found in public schools. The materials included in the master list were grouped under the following headings: personal adjustment, adjustment to others, adjustment of others to the individual, adjustment to personal program, and adjustment to scholastic achievement. The list was also suggested as a mnemonic device to recall incidents that could not be written up fully at the time of observation. Jarvie (75) reported that anecdotes tended to be recorded with greatest frequency during the early periods of residence; grades that were descriptive tended to become anecdotal in nature; as the teaching load increased, the number of anecdotes per potential class hour of contact tended to decrease; approximately one-half of the anecdotes concerned behavior other than classroom achievement. Jones (85) summarized data at a high school for a ten-week period during which anecdotal records were used. Sixty-six percent of the teachers wrote one anecdote for 15 percent of the students, two or more anecdotes for 6 percent, and no anecdotes for 79 percent. One teacher

(among eighty-nine) wrote 20 percent of all the anecdotes. McCormick (98) reported the use of anecdotal records in a junior high school; Driscoll (38), in an elementary school. Anecdotal records were used in addition to the usual records rather than as a substitute for them. The reliability and validity of observational records can only be established through frequent recording of items with similar content for each individual, so that the basic pattern of behavior is established. Then variations and inconsistencies take on meaning (76).

Uses of Cumulative and Other Records

The extent to which cumulative records were used in a high school was reported by Galbraith (57). In a two-month survey, an adaptation of the American Council cumulative record form was consulted by half of the staff of the school with an average of fifty-two consultations per person. Information regarding objective tests was sought more frequently than any other single item and constituted 37 percent of the reasons for consultation. The kind of test data sought more frequently than any other was scholastic aptitude. It required fifteen minutes to service each card annually. A study by Beck (10) suggested that when junior college students accepted the significance of the data included in a cumulative record, the fact that the data were being recorded had a wholesome effect upon behavior. Eighteen school procedures were analyzed by Smith (136) in which pupil personnel records were used. Some of these were: making the school census; filling application blanks for colleges; filling application blanks for positions; reporting to parents; enforcing attendance laws; adjusting curriculum offerings; guiding and counseling. A cumulative record card coded for Hollerith machine tabulation and used to facilitate research was described by Embree (43). Behavioral ineffectivenesses discovered through the use of anecdotal records were classified by Jarvie (76) into four levels: (a) those requiring no treatment—normal maturation will ordinarily overcome the difficulties; (b) those requiring procedures that could be administered by an intelligent and sympathetic teacher or counselor; (c) those requiring the services of a trained psychiatrist; (d) those that seem to go beyond psychiatric or medical aid.

Evaluation and Effective Guidance⁵

Evaluating the Functional Aspects of Pupil Ability

Taba (146) and Tyler (154) have found that evaluation of human behavior is too often viewed as a measuring of final results rather than as a means of diagnosing difficulties and successes encountered in reaching the end results. Taba (147) has pointed out the need for evaluative methods adapted to the more functional qualities of pupil learning and also to

⁵ This section was written by Warren R. Baller.

the "intangible educational objectives." Eurich (45) has shown not only the advantages of appraisals based upon the functioning, dynamic elements of behavior but has cautioned against the assumption that evaluation necessarily implies a repudiation of measurement. Taba (147) and Lorge (95) have given additional emphasis to these two points.

Evaluative instruments which have been constructed to meet the needs expressed above have included many designed to measure critical thinking. Rath (121) has given illustrations of interpretation of data tests and nature of proof tests, a considerable number and variety of which have been developed by him and his associates, especially for the fields of social and physical science (118). Fawcett (50) has found that tests of the nature of proof lead to better thinking habits among students in geometry classes. Grim (61) has reported similar results in the social studies, using interpretation of data as a basis of testing. Hart (65) has measured the contributions of a physical science course to logical thinking in lifelike situations. Pace (112) has developed a situations test which proves to be sensitive to changes in social, economic, and political attitudes of students. Banks (9) measured the growth resulting from home economics instruction of desirable attitudes toward homemaking and family life. Heil (69) has explored the possibilities of various visual aids in teaching and evaluating critical thinking. Arnold's experience (4) with fifth- and sixth-grade pupils indicates the values of tests of interpretation of data in working with younger pupils. The work of the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association has included the construction of a number of excellent tests of critical thinking (119). Advantages of such tests and others which approach experience as a process rather than a product are described by Tyler (156) and by Wrightstone (163); also by Outland and Jones (111).

The field study, as a plan for promoting learning of the functional kind, has necessitated some experimenting with evaluative procedures. Baker (8), Fraser (55), and Rath (122) have reported on the use of evaluative instruments appropriate to detecting shifts of belief resulting from field observations. Atyeo (6) devised questionnaires for the before-and-after type of evaluation. Jones (86, 87) made use of the following tests, both before and after a field study experience: scale of belief, social problems test, interpretation of data, and the nature of proof. A comparison of results was made with the data gathered from anecdotal records, interviews with parents and various follow-up activities. An important study has been made by Read (123) in an effort to determine which personality traits in children may be judged with most agreement and to investigate the factors which influence the degree of agreement. The desire to secure evaluations which reflect the gains in pupils' art appreciation has led to newer technics, described by Faulkner (49) and by Grimes and Bordin (63). The stress upon the values of leisure reading by high-school students induced Eberhart (40) to devise

methods suitable to evaluation in this area. Corey and Fahey (23) have found that the kinds of questions asked by pupils serve well to indicate types of mental activity.

Comprehensiveness in Evaluation

According to many writers on the subject of evaluation, one of the requirements of effective appraisal and of effective guidance is broader bases for judging pupil behavior and development. Tyler (154) Segel (132), Herrick (71), and Wrightstone (169) insisted upon this point as a necessary provision for assessing *all* important aspects of pupil achievement. Eurich and Wrenn (46) and Williamson and Hahn (164) have shown the fundamental importance of a wide variety of information in the effective guidance of students. Their discussions are pertinent in the present connection largely because of their descriptions of evaluative techniques that have proved useful in guidance.

The need for variety in evaluative procedure, as well as appropriateness in the choice of instruments, was further emphasized in reports of Aiken (2), Drought (39), Jersild (30), and Tyler (155) on evaluation in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. Similar problems have confronted evaluators interested in the less formal outcomes of student achievement in college. Drought's report, mentioned previously, described the procedures employed at the University of Chicago. Aiken (1) summarized certain findings in other colleges cooperating in the Eight-Year Study, and Jones (33) and others (41) reviewed the changing evaluative program at Ohio State University. Pechstein and Munn (113) have reported on a pioneer study in measuring growth of children of the primary grades in fourteen patterns of social maturity.

Evaluating the Dynamic Aspects of Pupil Behavior

There is increasing emphasis in education upon dynamic factors in the child's development. The recent review by Symonds and Samuel (145) shows how extensively *projection interpretation* has been explored as a supplement to other ways of studying human development. McCall and Herring (96) have also summarized the work being done to relate measurement to the more effective promotion of growth in personality. Murray's extensive study (66) with projective methods in the exploration of personality may be referred to for many detailed descriptions of techniques. Blos (14) has shown, in his case studies of adolescent personality, the contribution which can be made by analysis of essays, letters, records of conversation, anecdotal material, and the like, in the interpretation of personal-social adjustment. Sheviakov and Friedberg (134) have used students' responses to interest inventories in studying their personality traits. Grimes (62) has presented evidence that certain traits of personality may be inferred from students' drawings.

Another approach to the study of personality and the "influence of personality traits among children" is that of verbal portrait-matching as employed by Tryon (153). With this method Tryon was able "to discover . . . some of the aspects of personality which children consider desirable in each other."

Emphasis upon the Whole Child

Current publications of research in child development place considerable accent upon the importance of knowing the "whole child." The *interrelatedness* of the various growth processes (physical, mental, social, etc.) has been emphasized by Prescott (116), Zachry (171), and Olson (108). Olson and Hughes (109) have gathered much evidence to support the concept of "organismic age," which is essentially an average of all available measurements expressed in age values. Some of the reports of the Harvard Growth Study (135) emphasize not only the interrelatedness of growth processes (141) but the *continuity* of the processes. They present evidence to show that though there are similarities in the growth patterns of different persons there are also marked differences in the rates at which individuals proceed from one phase of growth to another.

The problem of securing, recording, and interpreting data concerning the development of the child, particularly over a long period, has given new emphasis to case studies, clinical approaches, and observational and anecdotal records. The role of these several methods in contributing to the study of the individual child was illustrated by Olson (108) and by Blos (14). Hamalainen (64), in a study of evaluative procedures in thirty schools of New York State, found a pronounced trend toward more use of descriptive records, particularly of anecdotal records. Spalding (139), drawing upon the findings of the Regents' Inquiry in New York State, observed that high schools frequently have little information about their pupils beyond the facts implied in records of school marks. Averill (7) outlined a thorough case-study procedure which has proved effective in analyzing mental hygiene problems. Evjen (47) developed and reported on the use of an instrument of contact which indicates the apparent adjustments the child is making in his school relationships. Ellingson and Jarvie (42) found that though descriptive records do not take the place of the more formal personnel information they throw additional light upon the dynamic aspects of student experience and growth. Confidence on the part of teachers in the values of descriptive records tends to increase with the length of time they are used (75).

The adaptability of behavior journals and observational records to a variety of evaluative data concerning pupil behavior is shown in the studies of McCormick (98), Buros (20), Driscoll (38), Bowes (15) and Jones and Galbraith (85). Wilson (165) has worked out an extensive form for collecting systematic anecdotal data in line with a number of objectives of child development.

Self-Evaluation in Guidance

That an increasing emphasis is being placed upon self-evaluation is shown by Troyer (152) who called attention to the importance of honoring student goals and purposes in guidance, and insisted that self-appraisal is part of such a policy in education. An interesting experiment in self-guidance and self-evaluation is one reported by Kopas (93) with college students. Every student has his own "Record and Planning Folder" in which he keeps test results, scholastic records, and other appraisals of progress as well as "tentative plans" and reports on his cooperative work experience. That students can be trained to make effective use of this plan is indicated by the results. Mott (103) and Mulholland (104) have gathered evidence that pupils' achievement is improved when they have definite responsibility in determining and reporting their progress. An examination of the results of Wrinkle's experiment in marking and reporting suggests the essential soundness of pupil participation in evaluation. Tyson (157) found in his study that there is no overwhelming tendency for students, even of low standing, to rationalize their positions. One of the points brought out in Orata's searching critique of evaluation (110) is that evaluation as an integral part of the learning process is much more talked about than practiced. Rath (120) has attributed many of the difficulties involved in securing effective evaluation to the failure to think of evaluation as an *act*, a way of viewing the movements of events toward specified goals—specified in this instance by the persons whose changing behavior is being appraised.

Summary

The foregoing classifications of researches appear to represent the major emphases in this area of evaluation. In summary form they are:

- (a) The development of ways of getting beyond the measurement of knowledge, per se, placing emphasis upon the functional aspects of ability.
- (b) The achieving of comprehensiveness in the evaluation of pupil accomplishment. ✓
- (c) The adequate appraisal of the dynamic aspects of behavior.
- (d) The development of methods appropriate to studying the whole child.
- (e) The promotion of self-evaluation.

Other reviews of research in evaluation, of which certain parts deal with guidance and counseling, are those of Cronbach (31), Orata (110), and Buross (21).

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CHAPTER III

Counseling¹

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General Review

THIS CHAPTER will attempt to review relevant literature of the past three years under four broad categories: advances in the diagnostic procedures basic in counseling; advances in knowledge of interviewing as the primary vehicle for counseling; clarifications of the counseling function; research studies in the evaluation of counseling.

It is to be regretted that the grist of acceptable research by *personnel workers* is so small. Personnel workers in the main have been prone to rely, not always wisely, upon the research findings of test-makers, statisticians, or laboratory workers, while they continue to write in descriptive, philosophic, or argumentative terms. As late as 1941, the Committee on Research and Publications of the American College Personnel Association (19) pointed out that only a third of 230 papers in the seventeen annual reports had involved the presentation of research in any form, good or bad, whereas 38 percent of these papers were purely descriptive and about 38 percent were philosophical. This was true of an organization whose members were presumably intimately concerned with student personnel work in their daily tasks.

Under such conditions the reviewer must decide whether or not to set up a systematic framework of his own and select rigorously the literature that seems pertinent within that framework, at the risk of appearing arbitrary. The alternative seems to be the citation and notation of a large number of references without regard to any systematic structuring of the field. We have taken the risk of appearing arbitrary, and of reviewing at somewhat greater length a smaller number of references.

Before reviewing specific literature, it is necessary to comment briefly on one event of the past triennium—the publication of the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* in 1941 (47). Definitive statements on a wide range of topics, with the inclusion of carefully selected bibliographies, provide a source book of information that warrants careful and frequent consideration by personnel workers.

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 62.

² The authors are indebted to John M. Butler and Walter F. Johnson for assistance in collecting and reviewing the materials in this chapter.

Analytic, Diagnostic, or Prognostic Procedures

General Considerations

The items of information collected about a student, the most effective syntheses to be made of these items, and their predictive efficiency in forecasting the course of his adjustment have been matters of individual resources, judgment, or experience among counselors in the past. By reference to certain basic psychological facts and problems, Darley (23, 23a) has attempted to systematize the analytic phase of case study in counseling. He postulates the need for investigating systematically eight aspects of the individual. Typically low intercorrelations for individual prediction between any two of these aspects necessitate a separate analysis of each aspect. Differential growth rates and possibilities for change similarly require a separate check of each aspect. Two research problems then become interrelated: what are the elements and organizational patterns of mental life; and what are the comparative economics, reliabilities, and validities of a wide range of analytic and diagnostic technics.

The tying-in concept for the items of information directly related to educational or vocational counseling continues to be some empiric or experimental modification of the concept of the "occupational ability profile," described in the earlier writings of Viteles, Dvorak, Trabue, and Dodge. The Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales (50) represent the first workable procedure available to counselors for identifying families of occupations and patterns of abilities in case work.

A recent and significant statement of the prediction problem in counseling as well as other fields is found in the Social Science Research Council monograph entitled, *The Prediction of Personal Adjustment* (38). The first one-third of this 450-page volume is given over to a relatively non-technical and nonmathematical statement of the general prediction problems as the basis for the control and improvement of human behavior. Five supplementary studies of statistical problems and technics, including the statistical aspects of research on case data, comprise the balance of this essential reference.

Advances in test construction and standarization have been reviewed in the February 1941 issue of the REVIEW (53) and need not be discussed again. A few articles on new test materials or specific counseling uses of tests will be cited below. Similarly, it should be unnecessary to review the large number of straight prediction studies from local institutions at the college level. Segel (58) and Harris (34) have both summarized exhaustive bibliographies on this topic and the general conclusions still stand: achievement test or high-school scholarship versus college scholarship yield a median general prediction of .55; scholastic aptitude tests and college grades correlate with a median value of .44; other predictive items, singly or in combination, vary around these values. Kandel (41) has reviewed the better known aptitude tests in law, medicine, and engineering, and

presented summaries of their usefulness in predicting professional school success.

In regard to these studies, it would seem relevant to point out again that improvement of the fallible criterion of college grades might well be the crucial experimental problem. Substituting standard achievement tests for college grades as the criterion, Sarbin and Bordin (55) demonstrated markedly superior predictions. Bellows (6) has an excellent theoretical discussion of the problems and methods of evaluating vocational criteria; academic counselors might well consider its implications before embarking upon more college prediction studies. The Social Science Research Council monograph cited earlier also devoted sections to a generalized discussion of the problems of selecting, refining, and evaluating criteria in predictive work.

Pending improvements and extensions of the criteria of college success, local prediction studies and local studies of test performance of college survivors are primarily frames of reference and points of departure for counselors in any given institution. Significant studies of this type are those by Williamson (71), Stuit and Donnelly (62), and Schneider and Berdie (57), in which the entrance test scores of students surviving to graduation or to the fifth year of a longer course were summarized to give central tendency and variability values for use as first approximations in individual counseling.

Counseling admittedly involves more than testing and more than straight statistical prediction. How much more it does involve is only beginning to emerge in the form of acceptable research rather than generalized discussion articles.

General Scholastic Ability

From the analytic standpoint, there is now more evidence available on the Thurstone Primary Mental Abilities Test (Experimental Edition). Shanner and Kuder (59) at Chicago, Bernreuter and Goodman (8) at Pennsylvania State College, Darley (24) at Minnesota, and Ellison and Edgerton (27) at Ohio State have studies in print. In each study, the verbal factor tends to carry the highest weight. In the combined studies, the results are somewhat above the median value of zero-order correlations between a test of scholastic aptitude and subsequent college achievement, but the small increase in predictive efficiency may not compensate for the cost and complexity of administering the test, particularly in view of the limitations of criteria.

Thurstone (67) reported results from 710 eighth-grade children with an adapted form of the Primary Mental Abilities Test that are relevant to the growth of abilities. This population, together with a checking population of 437 children, yielded six of the seven factors found in the study of high-school seniors in the original work.

From the prognostic standpoint, three interesting longitudinal studies are available. Benson (7), in an unpublished master's thesis, traced the

subsequent educational career of almost 2,000 sixth-grade students tested during one day in the Minneapolis schools in 1923 with the Haggerty Delta 2. By 1940, only about 7 percent had received bachelors' degrees or undertaken graduate work. This 7 percent showed also the highest median IQ as sixth-graders. Ball (3) reported correlations between Pressey test scores, obtained on students in Grades II to X in 1918 and 1923, and Barr-Taussig occupational scale ratings in 1937. For the group tested in 1923, the correlation was .57; for the 1918 test results, the correlation was .71. Adams (1) traced the subsequent careers of 1,505 children in Grades IV to VI in ten schools of a Texas town. His results are in general accord with Benson's: progressively higher selection accompanying the attainment of higher education levels. From the interpretive standpoint, Traxler's (63) equation of the widely used American Council Examination and the familiar IQ, through the Otis Test, yields a common measurement referent which counselors should find useful.

The primary counseling significance of these studies is to reinforce the conviction that differential guidance, along broad educational and occupational lines, can begin in the earlier school years. Inescapable differentials in mental ability are discernible wherever well-trained counseling personnel can begin to function in the late elementary- and junior high-school year range. If differentiation of interests and aptitudes is demonstrable in or near the same age range, counseling can become technically the "continuous process" that it is philosophically described as being.

Achievement

Achievement testing has seen no major advances in the triennium that relate specifically to the counseling function. Revisions and condensations of existing batteries and the extension of achievement testing practices to graduate schools and graduate teachers represent improvements in selective or predictive instruments with which counselors should be familiar. No relevant research has appeared on the counseling use of evidence of student achievement in work experiences, extracurriculum activities, or hobbies. Estimates of such achievements, although difficult to get, illuminate case work markedly.

Aptitudes

The working definition of an aptitude is probably a narrow segment of behavior relatively unaffected by training or practice. Whether, theoretically, specific aptitudes exist, each with a differential growth curve, and in what age range the growth curves level off to a fairly stable performance, remain unknown questions.

From the analytic and prognostic standpoint, Schneider's (56) report of age and grade norms for high-school populations on the Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers is a useful addition to an already valuable test. Harrell's (33) factor analysis of mechanical ability tests pro-

vides the groundwork for construction of more precise mechanical aptitude measures. Stead (61) and his associates reviewed the experiences of the United States Employment Service in constructing specific aptitude tests. The February 1941 issue of the *REVIEW* has an extended bibliography on aptitude testing to which the reader is referred.

Personality Characteristics

The counselor has three broad reasons for concerning himself with the personal adjustments of students, as seen in various personality characteristics: there is limited evidence, as cited by Darley (21), of occupational selection on the basis of normally differentiated personality "type"; there is increasing evidence of personal maladjustment as a cause of job separation among adults; and there is some slight (clinical) evidence of the effect of personal maladjustment on academic achievement or at least on placement at the conclusion of academic training. The clinician would probably agree that the young, maladjusted individual may become the maladjusted adult, although there are certain transient adjustment problems associated with late adolescence that must be viewed with less alarm.

The most prevalent viewpoint toward pencil-and-paper tests of personality is one of suspicion. Yet the assumed or actual unreliability and invalidity of these devices does not automatically clothe alternative techniques with either reliability or validity. The inherently statistical nature of the numerical, or test, observation and the non-numerical, or descriptive, observation are discussed at some length in one article in a recent symposium on the social adjustment of college students (22). Each type of observation is a departure from an explicit or implicit average point in the observer's experience; is subject to systematic or random errors; is referred back to some sample of human beings in the observer's experience; is inevitably a prediction of subsequent behavior. The published discussion attempts to reconcile the extreme normative or statistical viewpoint of some workers with the absolute, "single-case" viewpoint of others.

Several analytic and diagnostic devices have been developed in this area in the triennium. Jarvie and Ellingson (39) have written a manual descriptive of the highest present level of development of anecdotal records. The technic of the anecdotal record should be an excellent first step in guidance programs that start out to win general faculty support in a small institution.

McKinley and Hathaway (36, 46), in a brilliant and long overdue collaboration between neuropsychiatry and clinical psychology, have demonstrated the diagnostic use of a large pool of personality test items, from which carefully selected and homogeneous functional disease groups respond to a grouping of items that in turn becomes a diagnostic test for subsequent, undiagnosed cases in the same functional disease group. A growing group of scales from this item pool are being experimentally studied in psychiatric investigations. The technic has promise for eventual use with normal adolescents.

A statistical parallel to the experimental process devised by McKinley and Hathaway is the technic of inverted factor analysis. The technic is given a theoretical discussion by Burt (13), and a report by Bordin (10) describes the method in locating like-behaving college students in regard to social adjustments and activities.

Within the definition of research on clinical problems, four studies deserve mention. Hathaway (35) documented a relationship between good or excellent scores on some personality tests—"supernormal" adjustment—and antisocial behavior. His cases were nine diagnosed psychopathic inferiors. Feder and Baer (28) reported a significant study of the relation of Bernreuter scores to observational and anecdotal records in a group of eighty-one undergraduate women dormitory residents. Lack of agreement between test scores and observational data was discussed in terms of the restricted response range and the inability of subjects to identify, and therefore to rate, the occurrence of certain behavior on their parts. Glockler (31) identified students with poor measured social adjustment, inducted them into social experiences as an outgrowth of a normal counseling contact, and retested to gage the extent of improvement from this type of counseling and activity experience. The research pattern of this pioneer study has possibilities for future experimental work. The fourth article is the report of a series of studies on motivation, carried on under the supervision of Feder (29). As a pervasive aspect of personality, motivational problems are viewed in three phases: absence of needs, absence of goals, and excessive psychological barriers. Data on career versus marriage drives, achievement in physics related to reason for taking the course, and general achievement related to negative and positive stimulation regarding ability are the research bases from which the authors derive significant clinical hypotheses.

Interests

The triennium has encompassed several studies of significance to counselors in this aspect of student behavior. Traxler and McCall (69) reported test-retest reliabilities for high-school, college, and adult cases over a one- to fifteen-month interval in the high seventies and eighties on the Kuder Preference Record. Sex differences occur at all levels; age differences occur outside the high-school range only. Using college specialization as the criterion, the authors substantiate Kuder's findings of clear group differences. Adkins and Kuder (43), and Kuder (43) reported, respectively, low correlations between ability and preferences and between college achievement and preferences. Kuder (44) had a significant theoretical article on the merits of the preference form of item as it may be used in interest and personality measurement. The economy of the Kuder Preference Record is one of its strongest features; however, it needs additional occupational validation before its guidance use is adequately proved.

Sharkey and Dunlap (60) described the standardization of an academic preference blank of ninety items for Grades VI through IX. Alternate form and test-retest reliabilities range from .74 to .91 for the subtests. Validation is based on correlation with ability and achievement measures and on differentiation of achievers and underachievers.

Carter (14), Carter, Taylor, and Canning (16), and Carter and Jones (15), summarizing data from the University of California Adolescent Study, cited results from selected keys on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Men with tenth-, eleventh-, and twelfth-grade students. Using both the published critical scores and sigma scores, the emergence of interest patterns and of minimum relations between claimed and measured interests is clear in these early ages. In the first mentioned article, Carter attempts a description of the development of vocational attitudes as "a set of values which can find expression in one family of occupations but not in other families of occupations." Bedell (5) reported insignificant correlations between the measured interest and self-estimated interests of freshmen women in teacher training. The Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women was used in the study, and the subjects estimated the amount of their interests in the same seventeen occupations for which the blanks were scored. The experiment is straightforward and conclusive evidence of the need for guidance attention to both claimed and measured interests.

Peterson and Dunlap (51), described a further reduction in scoring costs and time for the Strong blanks by use of unitary weights. They presented conversion procedures to bring the unit-weighted total scores back into the score range of the existing plus-to-minus four scheme. This research should be widely applicable in increasing the use of the Strong blanks—still the best instruments in this area. Darley (21) has attempted to systematize extensive clinical experiences with the Strong blanks in a total personnel program. He establishes evidence for clinical methods of pattern analysis, "expectancy tables" for interest types, and face-to-face counseling procedure on the basis of interest measurement. Illustrative case histories are followed by discussions of the origin, development, and nonoccupational determinants of interest types. Super (63) made a pioneer study of the possibilities of identifying and differentiating nonoccupational and recreational interests. He used the Strong's blank, establishing new keys on small groups with defined hobby activities. The field he opened up is of great significance in the social and personal guidance of students and adults.

The Interview

As a diagnostic and therapeutic device, the interview is the most frequently used procedure in counseling as in other fields of human adjustment, yet the amount of significant research on interviewing is exceedingly small. Only recently has electric recording and transmission equipment been adapted to this vital research problem; three university research centers are now known to have such equipment, and it is probable that an

increasing quantity of research will emerge from these programs. Fortunately, two of these centers represent sufficiently divergent viewpoints so that research hypotheses will be set up and studied under the stimulus of intellectual competition.

Bingham and Moore (9) first described the three interview functions of getting information, giving information, and modifying attitudes. These authors have now produced a third edition of their original handbook which merits re-examination by those who have profited from the past two editions, in terms of general interviewing processes.

One may view the interview situation for therapy as a learning situation for the client or student. In such a framework, the entire psychology of learning becomes relevant research and theory. Thus the following learning factors must be considered as they conduce to the success of the interview: level of ability of the interviewee; time spent by both parties on materials to be learned in the interview series; motivation and freedom from emotional blocking in the interviewee; and "teaching" approaches chosen by the interviewer. Admittedly, all the solutions of interview problems are not to be found in the psychology of learning. However, failure to relate the outcomes of interviewing to analogous learning situation seems to have been one serious omission in the literature on the interview.

Rogers (54), to date, has been most articulate in formulating hypotheses and descriptions of the interview in psychotherapy. His first premise is that of a skilled therapist "whose purpose is to release and strengthen the individual rather than to intervene in his life" works through the following processes: establishing rapport; helping the client's free expression of feeling; helping the client to recognize and accept his spontaneous self; encouraging the client to take the responsibility for making new choices; helping the client to an "assimilated interpretation" of himself, as basic to insight; helping the client grow into independence.

Under this general influence at Ohio State University, a study by Porter (52) described the construction and use of a scale to measure counseling interview procedures, preparatory to studies of the effectiveness of these procedures. Typescripts and phonographic recordings of interviews by different counselors at different stages in a series with different students were observed by trained judges. The judges show interjudge correlations of better than .90 in checking the *number* of procedures used by counselors; in 45 percent of 9,293 identified procedures, the judges agreed on the *types* of procedures used by counselors; by use of a recently devised and significant statistical method (26), profiles of judgments of frequency of use of procedures were established for each judge and the profiles were correlated as a third measure of observer agreement. The mean interjudge correlations were approximately .85. In these data, there is conclusive evidence that interview procedures can be observed with reliability as high as we are accustomed to associate with other fields of measurement. The balance of the study demonstrated intercounselor differences and similar-

ities in procedures, depending upon the counselor's viewpoints. Furthermore, different amounts of "directiveness," or by author's implication authoritarianism, accompany counselors' viewpoints and patterns of procedures used. Counselors are consistent within themselves from one interview to the next, and counselors with the same viewpoint tried to be consistent with each other in procedures used and amount of "directiveness."

This pioneer study is a significant methodological contribution. It contrasts the theories of psychotherapy of which Rogers is one exponent with the theories its author has read into the writings of Williamson and others at Minnesota, of Bingham, Strang, and Symonds. Whatever viewpoints one may take regarding the interview as a therapeutic device, it is encouraging to see interviewing finally brought within the scope of sound experimental design and research methodology. The literature to date has been given over primarily to mystic discussions of the artistry of the process or pedestrian and repetitious suggestions regarding the physical setting and precepts of "good interviewing."

From the diagnostic standpoint, Symonds (65) discussed the theoretical problems of reliability and validity as they relate to research on the interview, and then lists the factors in the subject, in the interviewer, and in the situation producing the interview which must be experimentally controlled if research is to be done. Symonds and Dietrich (66) presented experimental data on variations in time of recording the interview materials as they relate to number of ideas correctly recalled. Interviews were written up immediately after completion, two days later, and seven days later. Observers, interview number in series, and subjects were rotated to eliminate practice effects. Analysis of electrical recordings provided the criterion against which the interview reports were judged. Not only the time interval but also the groups of judges were significantly related to percentage of ideas correctly recalled. The authors set their research in the classic framework of the laws of forgetting, the obverse of the learning problem.

Super and Brophy (64) reported the stenographic recording of interviews with forty high-school juniors and seniors for the purpose of diagnosing student problems. Extensive test and background data for each case were first studied to arrive at a diagnosis. In thirty-one of the cases, the interview served only to confirm the first diagnosis and in four additional cases it clarified the first diagnosis. In the remaining five cases, the interview uncovered additional material essential to diagnosis, primarily in the area of personality adjustment. The authors' own conclusions and interpretations admit the limitations of the study: a typical amount of original data; importance of personality factors when they are crucial phases of the diagnosis; identical experimenter in both phases of the study; and distinction between diagnosis and therapy. It is a type study, however, that illustrates another research approach to the interview.

While few in number, the articles on the interview per se are laying the groundwork for a systematic attack on what has been the most elusive research problem to date.

The Counseling Function

It is difficult to put boundaries around this function, either in terms of extensiveness or intensiveness. As a matter of fact, counseling is a broad educational function when conceived of in terms of the total educational program and yet it demands highly specialized skills for certain problems. It is an essential procedure engaged in by teachers, placement workers, clinical counselors, and all other types of educational workers but in *differing degrees* of both scope and intensity. Any discussion of counseling should carry with it an indication of what *kind* of counseling is being described, that is, the scope of the problems considered, and with what *intensity*, in terms of time and skill, the counseling is being performed.

The literature on the counseling function is largely based upon *a priori* judgment rather than upon research data. Two types of recent studies will be reviewed here: those which provide a careful analysis of the essential nature of counseling, and those which include data on the incidence of counselors and counseling at various school levels.

Logical Analyses

The Section on Preparation for Guidance Service of the National Vocational Guidance Association has issued a preliminary statement on "The Preparation and Certification of the School Counselor" (40). The school counselor, whose selection and training is analyzed, is conceived of as a trained "generalist." The functions of this counselor are two in number: leadership of the guidance program of the school, and service as a "resource" counselor to whom teachers and administrators can refer students directly or from whom they can secure help with regard to their own counseling responsibilities. Stress is laid upon the necessity of a coordinated program of counseling by all workers in addition to the skill and qualifications of the trained counselors. In smaller schools, of course, such a person will perform many duties that should be performed by more specialized workers. The 12-page report goes beyond the selection and training of this generalized school counselor and analyzes the qualifications and training of both teachers and administrators for their legitimate counseling functions.

A conference of personnel leaders called by the American Council on Education in 1937 resulted in the publication of the very useful bulletin, *The Student Personnel Point of View*, and the appointment by the Council of its Committee on Student Personnel Work. This Committee soon undertook the preparation and publication of several brochures on various aspects of the total field, and in 1939 two well-written little volumes on educational and vocational counseling appeared (11, 20). The latter is somewhat broader than the first, dealing with problems of occupational orientation and of placement in addition to the function of vocational diagnosis and counseling. There is no apparent reason for the separate

treatment of educational and vocational counseling since the two are functionally inseparable in the preponderance of the individuals counseled. Something is lost by this separation, although conciseness of treatment may be gained. The concept of the counseling function in these two useful and clearly written volumes is that of an activity in which all workers participate with differing degrees of breadth and depth. Although written for college and university staff members, the value for secondary workers is equally great.

In the back of one issue of *Occupations* is a "Letter to the Editor" submitted by Arnold M. Hess (37). This letter contains a statement of seventeen basic concepts of student personnel work at all educational levels that had been prepared by a workshop group at the University of Chicago in the summer of 1940. These seventeen concepts are well considered and pointedly stated and deserve careful reading by any student personnel worker. One of them has reference to counseling and because of its terseness is quoted here: "Counseling is threefold in function: it aids students in becoming sensitive to their needs and characteristics, in reaching a tentative solution to their problems, and in developing greater self-direction." This statement emphasizes the often neglected concept that the student must assume responsibility for decisions if the outcomes of counseling are to be justified.

Each of the analyses of counseling functions just cited is the result of composite thinking upon the part of some group of professional workers. It may not be amiss to conclude this section with the judgments of two or three individual writers in the field. Williamson has written extensively upon this topic, and recent publications show an expansion of the concept adhered to in his book with Darley in 1937, *Student Personnel Work*. In his comprehensive volume on clinical counseling published in 1939, he defines counseling as *one* of the six steps in the total process of individual work with students (first outlined in the 1937 book). "Counseling refers to the steps taken by the student and by the counselor to bring about adjustment and readjustment" (p. 57) (72). This has been preceded by analysis and diagnosis and assumes the final step of "follow-up." In his book with Hahn (77), the function of counseling is presented as one engaged in by many educational workers, who differ widely in their training and scope of responsibility.

In two chapters or sections of recent books, Wrenn (78, 80) analyzed the function of counseling in higher education. In the *Encyclopedia* article he upheld the more specific concept of counseling as one phase of the total personnel program, defined as the individualized relationship between the student and counselor. The interview is said to be the focal technic used in the process of understanding and assisting the student. The relation of the faculty-adviser to the trained counselor is brought out in the second reference. The faculty adviser is said to perform a specific function—that of registration or academic advising while the professional counselor

must be prepared to serve the more inclusive needs of students and serve them at a more advanced level of skill.

Of the various writers of recent general texts in the secondary field, Myers (43) gives one of the clearest statements of the counseling function. He states that (vocational) counseling is always personal as opposed to the loose phrase of "group counseling" and that it is more than the giving of advice. The counselor *assists* the student in making a decision but attempts to refrain from making the decision for the student. Perhaps it would have been better to have said that the counselor and counselee cooperate in arriving at a joint decision.

Surveys of Counseling

Greenleaf and Brewster (32) reported on the number of "counselors and guidance officers" who spend at least half-time in guidance work in the 23,000 public secondary schools reporting to the U. S. Office of Education for the year ending June 1938. Approximately 6 percent of these schools had one or more counselors or guidance officers on half-time or more than half-time basis during 1937-38. (The lack of discrimination between "counselors" and other guidance workers should be kept in mind.) These 1,297 high schools, employing 2,286 guidance workers, enrolled a total of about one-third of all the public high-school students in the nation. The median enrolment of these high schools is 1,320. The ratio of total guidance workers to total students in these 1,297 high schools is about 1 to 900. The survey, crude though its definitions are, is exact enough to provide a picture that is not a cheering one. Two-thirds of the public high-school students of the nation are in schools not even having a half-time guidance worker. Tremendously wide variation between states and excessive counselor-pupil loads are facts that should be taken into account by the more idealistic and theoretical writers in the field.

A study made by Bailey (2) provides a little more reason for optimism, partly because the survey concerned only those who are already designated as "guidance functionaries" in the secondary schools. The amount of selection in the sampling cannot be determined from the report which is based upon reports from 555 guidance workers out of 966 to whom blanks were sent. The original group of 1,600 were randomly selected (from which original base is not known), but why blanks were sent to only 966 of these is not stated. The facts revealed about these 555 workers are, however, of distinct interest. Fifty differently worded titles were reported, with that of "counselor" applying to 27 percent. Fifty percent of all workers had administrative rank, 30 percent ranked as "counselors," and 19 percent as "teachers." It may be thought encouraging, although these were a selected group, to note that 35 percent of the guidance workers were on a full-time basis. The duties of these workers in rank order were as follows: personal advisement, planning and supervising guidance services, making community contacts, discipline, and recording data.

In contrast with the Bailey report is one by Koch (42) on the guidance work in 91 small high schools in Michigan, schools with 100 enrolment or less. Three-fourths of the schools were attempting some form of guidance although only 56 percent of the superintendents and 13 percent of their teachers had one college course or more in guidance. Some form of individual counseling is reported in 55 percent of the 69 schools having any attempts at guidance, with "guidance courses"—mostly courses in occupations—ranking next. Only 15 schools had a program that could be called "systematic." No evidence was given on whether or not anyone was designated as a "counselor" or whether any time at all was available for counselors from the regular class load.

Brief reviews of two more specialized studies may throw light upon the incidence of various sorts of counselors. Brumbaugh and Haggerty (12) reported a study of student personnel work in 232 institutions of higher learning in the North Central Association. Eighty-four percent of these institutions had "full-time or part-time counselors," with 24 percent having both full-time and part-time counselors. The impressiveness of these data is lessened when it is further reported that 77 percent of these counselors have had no specific training for their task, that 37 percent have from 20 to 40 or more counselees per person, and that 39 percent spend only from one to twenty minutes per student. Thirty-seven institutions have no one designated for either full-time or part-time counseling.

An analysis of the fields of employment of 2,261 members of the American Psychological Association who were engaged in full-time psychological work in 1940 was reported by Finch and Odoroff (30). Of this total, 888 are engaged in applied psychology, that is, psychological work other than teaching. When different fields of applied psychology are examined, that of "guidance and personnel (not including industrial)" accounts for 153 psychologists, an increase of 750 percent since 1931. There are 146 "school psychologists" in the applied group, an increase of 324 percent since 1931. While neither of these two is the largest group, that of "clinical psychologists" embracing 272 members, they have grown more rapidly than any other during the past decade. This is encouraging as indicating that there is a decided, although numerically small, flow of psychologically trained workers into many of the top level positions.

This section has indicated the dearth of careful studies of counseling functions and a lack of agreement as to the boundaries of the concept of counseling. The attempt to set up as clear a statement as possible from existing analyses and studies of counseling is essential to the consideration of the evaluation of counseling, the topic of the next section.

The Evaluation of Counseling

Evaluation is a type of research that requires the establishment of criteria against which the effectiveness of procedures and organization can be judged. It is in the prior determination of these standards or objectives,

to be used as criteria of effectiveness, that evaluation assumes its distinctive character. Evaluation is broader than measurement and it may use any one of several research methods. Tyler (70) gives a series of essential characteristics of any evaluation program: formulation of the objectives of the function to be evaluated; the validity, that is, the production of evidence regarding the specific objectives set up; objectivity; reliability; practicability; usefulness.

Evaluation Criteria

There is probably no existing set of stated criteria for evaluating a personnel program, or counseling functions in particular, that will fit all evaluation efforts. Either they are so broad that they must be broken down into specifics against which appraisal can be made or they are so specific as to fit only a given situation. Wrenn (79, 81, 82) wrote that the most fundamental criteria of evaluation in student personnel work are the desired outcomes in student behavior but that such a statement is spuriously simple. After one states such fundamental criteria as vigorous physical health, social maturity, etc., there must be derived a set of more specific outcomes. He listed a number of these, such as scholastic achievement, decrease of incidence of known adjustment problems, and increased demand by students for a given type of service. Williamson and Bordin (74), in the first of a series of articles on the research evaluation of counseling, reviewed various criteria used in evaluations of counseling and examined each in detail. These included such criteria as academic achievement, educational and vocational choices, cooperation with counselor, student satisfaction, success on the job, and predictive efficiency. Composite criteria of student adjustment and behavior are given as the most desirable.

Follow-Up Studies

Another type of study, however, produces results that have significance in the evaluation of a counseling program. These are the studies which follow up a group of former students and determine their present status and their reactions to school life. Although a good many such studies have been reported within the past three years, only two comprehensive and carefully made studies will be briefly cited here because of their implications for counseling. One of these is as well known as the much quoted Maryland Study of the American Youth Commission and the other is destined to be.

The report by Marshall and Eckert (25) as one phase of the New York Regents' Inquiry supplies significant data upon pupils who have left school, both those who withdrew and those who graduated. Of the many conclusions drawn by the writers from the present status and direct responses of this large and representative group, only a few can be cited here. The reactions of these young people show clearly that the attention given them by teachers and counselors was much circumscribed by the

four walls of the schoolroom and that they know little of the lives of pupils outside the school environment. Beyond this, these former pupils do not believe that teachers know enough of life conditions in general to help them in any realistic sense. Neither principals nor teachers were able to identify any special ability for a majority of the former students although they had been in daily school contact with them over a period of years. Over one-half of the total group claimed not to have had any educational adviser in school. The next highest proportion named their parents as their curriculum advisers. Such findings have distinct value in evaluating the counseling which these former students had, or did not have, as well as in pointing up needed emphases in the future.

The follow-up of nearly 1,000 former students of the University of Minnesota by the staff of the General College, reported by Pace (49), contains some findings of major significance. The sampling was drawn from the entering class of four separate years so that the proportion of those who dropped out at the end of one quarter, one year, etc., and those who graduated was maintained. These young people had been out of college from one to twelve years. Extensive data were collected on each of these former students, utilizing a 52-page illustrated questionnaire, with interview data collected on a sampling of the total group. While implications for counseling are not drawn by the author, they may be clearly seen by those who read the report: (a) The need for vocational counsel is perhaps most apparent, with 20 percent of the graduating and 30 percent of the non-graduating men reporting that they had not decided upon a vocational goal by the time they left college. Only 56 percent of the men graduates and 44 percent of the women graduates are in vocations in the same field as that specialized in in the University. (b) The need for assistance in social adjustment and mental hygiene is apparent with 25 percent showing a present pattern of what is called "neurosthenic" tendencies. (c) A need for counseling on the selection and development of a variety of leisure-time activities is also clearly shown since the most frequent recreational activities of over 75 percent of the group were passive in nature—reading, movies, and the radio. Less than one-third engage frequently in hobbies and less than one-half in outdoor sports.

The study as a whole showed strikingly small differences between the present status and attitudes of graduates and of nongraduates. Attendance in college through graduation did not seem to be related to any characteristic except higher income and a slightly higher degree of vocational satisfaction—no apparent relationship to cultural activities, attitudes, or citizenship. The reader does not have to believe the reviewer—he can read the report for himself!

Evaluation Studies

When one looks for studies of counseling that fall within the scope of even a liberal definition of evaluation, the cupboard is found to be almost

bare. There are many descriptions of counseling programs and many statements of the expected outcomes but little evidence of what has actually taken place in terms of stated criteria. The series of four evaluation articles by Williamson and Bordin (73, 74, 75, 76) previously mentioned contains data on actual evaluations. The first article in the series is a critique of methodology and an examination of previous studies. (An excellent bibliography is appended.) The fourth is a descriptive analysis of the case records of 2,053 students who had been counseled in the Testing Bureau at the University of Minnesota from 1932 through 1935. In this paper an analysis is made of (a) the type of problems upon which counsel was given, (b) the sources of data used by the counselors, and (c) the counseling procedures used. The second and third studies are actual evaluations of the outcomes of counseling. The *School and Society* report is a control group study, using 405 Testing Bureau cases and a control group matched upon objective data. Better total adjustment, using a composite criterion of adjustment, was found for the counseled group, and better scholastic achievement. Beyond the demonstrated superiority of the counseled group in scholastic achievement, the study's unique contribution is the establishment of the control group's success in reaching its claimed vocational-educational choices as the evaluation criterion. The third report in the series was of an evaluation of 693 counseled students, using a composite criterion of adjustment but without a control group. Over 80 percent of the counseled group showed improved adjustment. Much attention is given in this study to methods of evaluation with stress laid upon the importance of the time interval between the time the counseling is done and the time the evaluation is made.

This series represents the most complete evaluation of counseling that has been reported to date. Various methods of evaluation are analyzed and several are illustrated in the studies reported. The particular frame of references of these studies must be kept in mind: all cases were those originating in the University Testing Bureau; all were college students; the counseling done was more careful and intensive than is characteristic of much counseling in other situations. A definite preference is shown for composite rather than part-criteria of adjustment and this involves judgment rather than dependence upon strictly quantitative results. In the judgment of the reviewer this is not only justifiable but essential, but others may not agree.

Love and McCabe (45) reported an evaluation of the faculty-adviser program in effect in the College of Education at the Ohio State University. The limitation of the study lies in its dependence upon a single criterion, the judgments of the counseled students as reported upon a questionnaire. It was found that there was little difference in the reported effectiveness of the counseling performed by members of the senior staff (full-time members with professorial standing) and those of the junior staff (instructors and assistants). The eight advisers who had had the most extensive training

in personnel work ranked significantly higher than the others in every counseling area. It was not pointed out, however, that since several of these staff members devoted a major share of their time to counseling they were more "available" as to total time and office space and that this must have had some influence upon the reactions of the students.

An evaluation of the counseling program in the Worcester Boys Club as reported by Cole (17) has profound implications for personnel workers. One hundred counseled boys were compared with noncounseled boys after a five-year lapse of time. In many and significant respects the counseled group was superior to the noncounseled. More of the former were still in school, less retardation was evident, fewer had left school during a school term, more were employed, more obtained work immediately after school, more were in occupations that offered advancement, more were satisfied with their vocations, and fewer were delinquent. ". . . the advised group had gained a distinct advantage over the unadvised group with respect to every factor measured." Furthermore, the differences found are reported to be statistically significant.

This comparison provides challenging evidence on counseling values. The crux of the matter lies in *how carefully the two groups were matched and the time at which the matching was done*. The matching is reported as having been made upon some eight or ten factors but the specific method used is not described, possibly due to limitations of space. In any event, the study is one that deserves careful attention. As it stands it challenges the basic concepts of many psychologists who emphasize the significance of inherited characteristics and those of many sociologists who believe in the importance of neighborhood and cultural environment as factors in delinquency.

Evaluation Methods

It was the intention of the reviewer to report upon several analyses of evaluation methods but space forbids. Certain of these have been mentioned; the Williamson-Bordin (73, 74, 75, 76) series, the chapter by Tyler (70), and a group of papers by Wrenn (79, 81, 82). This latter author supplies also a critique of methods used in follow-up studies that calls attention to the errors that may creep into any one of the three phases of such studies. Collyer (18) outlined essential procedures for evaluating a guidance program in a junior college and discusses certain evaluation charts that might well be used in an appraisal of counseling. Beaumont (4) described methods used in an evaluation of different academic counseling programs at the University of Michigan. These programs of counseling are not described.

It will be seen that, with one exception, the studies reviewed are at the college level. The reviewer was not able to find any others at the non-college level that measured results against set criteria. Most of the emphasis in the studies reported is upon: (a) an exact statement of objectives or criteria of evaluation; (b) a carefully formulated composite criterion in

preference to specific part-criteria of adjustment (such as grades); (c) control groups; (d) longitudinal as opposed to cross-section studies; and (e) careful inferences from results that do not assume that other factors in student development have been inoperative. In general, we have only begun to *know how* to evaluate counseling and few results are yet available.

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CHAPTER IV

Guidance through Groups¹

RUTH STRANG

GUIDANCE THROUGH GROUPS is a much more subtle and difficult process than that which is commonly called "group guidance." Its aim is (a) developmental—the satisfaction of basic needs; social and emotional development; the building of values, attitudes, social norms, vocational and esthetic values; and the acquisition of knowledge and skills, (b) diagnostic, (c) therapeutic, and (d) social, in the sense of contributing to the welfare of the group as well as promoting the best development of individuals. Classes, clubs, informal discussion groups, and social events constitute a laboratory in which to solve problems of the democratic way of life. For this reason, group activities assume worldwide importance in bridging the gap between democracy as an ideal and democracy as a reality (111: 1).

There is, however, no inevitable magic in group work. The potential dangers and difficulties of guidance through groups must be faced (111: 10-11). The best thinking of certain individuals may be inhibited rather than facilitated in the presence of a group. As a result of group stimulation, quantity of work may be increased at the expense of quality. Inappropriate group experiences may decrease rather than increase the self-confidence of certain individuals, and rejection by the group may intensify their feelings of inferiority. In other cases competing group loyalties may cause mental conflicts. Excessive social activity may be harmful to the best development of certain persons whose supply of psychological energy is low. More widely recognized is the facilitation of crime through association with groups having antisocial tendency (106: 25-26). Because of these potential dangers, effective guidance through groups requires skilful work with individuals as part of the function of group leadership. In conferences with the individual, the guidance worker may discover needs for changes in his environment; in groups, the leader frequently becomes aware of personal problems which must be treated individually. The counselor may sometimes best establish relationship with resistant individuals through shared work or play (111: 27-28, 128).

The literature on group activities is predominantly philosophical and descriptive, rather than experimental. With the exception of studies of relationships between participation in group activities and student characteristics, and several recent experiments on the influence of group atmosphere or procedures on the behavior of members, the hundreds of articles and books written on group activities consist largely of surveys of group work and descriptions of specific programs and procedures. On the elementary-school level McKown (82) has incorporated the best theory

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 80.

and practice in a book entitled *Activities in the Elementary School*. On the secondary-school and college level the important findings from the extensive literature on group activities have recently been incorporated in the fourth of a series of summaries of investigations in the broad field of personnel work (111). Terry (118) has recently made brief summaries of the purpose and practices of student activities. In a review by Wilkins and Wilkins (124) the place of student activities in the junior college is briefly described and evaluated. Haggerty and Brumbaugh's report (50) of a survey of 42 junior colleges, 38 publicly controlled teachers colleges, 189 liberal arts colleges, and 13 universities accredited by the North Central Association supplies factual data and opinion about official institutional attitudes toward student organizations, financial support of these activities, student membership on administrative boards and committees, advisory and supervisory functions, scope of organizations, and participation by students. Especially timely is the pamphlet of the American Association for the Study of Group Work, entitled *Group Work in a Year of Crisis* (5). Because of these recent reviews and surveys the present chapter will be limited to a relatively small number of investigations from among the 649 already covered in the volume on *Group Activities in College and Secondary School* (111), and to important books and articles published within the last year.

Some of the practical questions partially answered by publications issued during the last triennium may be stated as follows:

1. What are the major obstacles to achieving the potential values of group activities?
2. How extensive is participation in student activities?
3. What are the characteristics of students who participate and of those who do not?
4. What are the nature, unique contributions, and procedures of different types of group activities?
5. What effective methods of work with groups have been developed?
6. How does the physical environment facilitate the group process?
7. How may group work be adequately evaluated?

References particularly relevant to each of these questions will be briefly reviewed.

Obstacles to Successful Group Work

The failure of the group-activity program to fulfil educators' expectations is due to a number of philosophical, psychological, and administrative factors. Johnston (69) covered most of these weaknesses under the following headings:

1. Lack of understanding and appreciation of the potential values of group activities
2. Lack of faith in the ability of students to make and execute their plans
3. Lack of opportunity for some students who could profit by membership in a group to participate
4. Overemphasis on competitive aspects
5. Overattention to the promotion of the organization itself
6. Invasion of school organizations by propaganda of special-interest groups
7. Lack of organic relation between informal student groups and the curriculum

8. Neglect of evaluation of group activities in terms of fundamental objectives
9. Inadequate preparation of teachers for their group-work responsibilities
10. Lack of consideration for the club sponsor's total load.

Of these ten items, several have been subjected to study or experimentation. A survey of 282 accredited higher institutions in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (50) indicated administrative practices which seemed to be more concerned with the reputation of the institution than with the best development of all the students. A report by Stroude (114) on kinds of group work being promoted in secondary schools called attention to jealousy and snobbery as undesirable outcomes of group work in some situations.

Clement (20) noted, in 307 secondary schools belonging to the North Central Association, some evidence of a fusion of aims in curriculum and extracurriculum activities and a tendency toward scheduling informal student activities during school hours.

It has been repeatedly shown that 50 to 75 percent of the high-school faculty are engaged in extracurriculum activities which may occupy one-seventh or more of their professional day. For this group work they have been inadequately prepared, except for individuals who have participated in some plan, such as that described by Gregg (49), of group work with adolescents as part of teacher education.

Extent of Participation in Group Activities

A great deal of interest has been shown in the extent of students' participation in group activities, although such figures mean little unless the needs of the students are also known. Extent of participation varied from 100 percent in some institutions to less than 25 percent in others. The percentage of participation reported by Haggerty and Brumbaugh (50) for an accredited group of institutions of higher learning was higher than the percentages in other surveys. The average was 84 percent, and thirty-nine institutions reported 100 percent participation.

In some cases, surveys of campus activities in individual institutions of higher learning indicated that the existing organizations do not serve a sufficiently large number of students (53, 85, 104). Others, however, suggested a superior quality of student life (123). A survey by Parr and Cummins (93) of 45 junior colleges and a recent survey of student personnel work in 151 institutions engaged in teacher education (36) both report lack of agreement among institutions with respect to specific procedures and policies.

Although earlier studies reported the largest percentage of nonparticipation among the lower socio-economic groups, a recent investigation by Cory (25) showed somewhat more widespread participation. Student groups in educational institutions justify their existence only if they supply to all the children vital experiences lacking in the curriculum or in their out-of-school lives.

Limitation of participation has been studied much more extensively than possible means of stimulating group membership. The common practice of excluding a student from certain groups because of his low scholastic record may be seriously questioned. "If group activities have the educational values claimed for them, the student who is working on a low level of achievement should not be deprived of these values. Not infrequently the failing student needs the tonic effect of success in some extracurriculum activity" (111: 41). Therefore it is necessary to limit or stimulate participation on the basis of a study of each individual. The point system, accepted with enthusiasm ten years ago, has not proved to be the solution of the problem, for, increasingly, regulation of participation in group activities is being recognized as a counseling, not an administrative, problem.

Extent of participation in particular groups is not so important as continuity of participation in wholesome kinds of leisure activities. There is some evidence that students who have been active in high-school organizations are more likely to continue their interest in similar community groups than those who were nonparticipants. Thus the problem merges into the realm of community recreation.

Characteristics of Members and Leaders of Groups

The scientific study of the relationship between participation in student activities and intelligence, scholarship, health, and "success in life" presents many difficulties. Initial difficulty is encountered in determining who is a "participant." Some investigators have used the criteria of mere membership; others, consistent and definite contribution as a member; still others, office-holding in the group or rating on a point system. A second difficulty lies in failure to control such important factors as intelligence, time spent in remunerative work, health, and reading ability. A third limitation of many previous investigations is the exclusive use of quantitative methods when more valuable hypotheses and insights might have been obtained had case-study data been included. Closely allied to this last criticism is the tendency to overlook the heterogeneity of the groups studied. By treating them as homogeneous, very real differences in relationships are ignored.

Student Activities and Intelligence

Previous investigations have shown a

. . . general tendency for both high school and college students participating in informal group activities to have slightly higher scholastic potentialities than non-participants. Although we might expect students engaged in the more intellectual types of activities to have a higher mental rating, this is not always the case. Especially in the case of girl athletes, some evidence of superiority rather than inferiority in mental ability is available. No constant relationship has been obtained with all groups or with all individuals within a group in which the central tendency is in favor of participants (111: 202).

No investigation published during the last three years has altered this general conclusion.

Student Activities and Scholarship

With respect to scholarship, several investigations have recently been reported. Janney (65), studying a number of related factors with a group of 160 college women, found participation in extracurriculum activities and scholarship to be positively related. At Purdue University (81) "activity scores" derived from ratings on activity correlated .37 with scholastic achievement and .33 with scores on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. More significant is the table of individual scores which, in general, supports the conclusion reached by other investigators, namely, that participation in group activities appears to have a stimulating effect which results in relatively high scholarship. This same favorable relationship between college students' participation in activities and scholarship was reported in the area of dramatics by Dietrich (32). Only in two individual cases did participation in dramatics appear to have an unfavorable effect on scholarship. These individual cases, however, are of concern to the personnel worker who should be alert to discover students who are unable both to carry a heavy load of extra-class activities and to maintain an optimum level of scholastic achievement. This investigation is an admirable example of research technic in this field, illustrating delimitation of the problem, careful collection of data, appropriate statistical treatment, analysis of individual cases as well as of the group, and practical application of the findings.

In high school, as well as in college, participation in extra-class activities appears to have a beneficial rather than a detrimental effect on students' scholarship (107). Culley (29) contributed to methodology in this field by defining degrees of participation. He divided boys engaged in athletics into three classes: (a) letter men, (b) athletes who engaged in a sport to the full but did not compete in enough games to win a letter, and (c) students who did not participate in any interscholastic sport. The evidence obtained was in favor of the stimulating effect of engaging in athletics.

The results of investigations of this kind have a bearing on the practical problems of initiating new activities, limiting membership in a particular activity, and evaluating the outcomes of an activity. At any rate, the results of these investigations do not justify the policy of excluding students from informal group activities solely on the basis of low scholarship.

Student Activities and Health

Although health is a factor which should always be considered in advising students concerning group activities, few attempts have been made to study this relationship. Wilkins (123), using as a criterion of health the number of days spent in the college hospital, found that the average

number of days in the hospital for the entire student body during the year was 1.3; for the group of 58 student officers, 2.1; and for a group of 149 nonparticipants, 1.6. Results in other institutions would be affected by facilities for, and regulations and attitudes concerning, hospitalization. Moreover, hospitalization is not an adequate index of health, nor is it one that is closely related to excessive participation in student activities. More significant factors to study in this connection would be indications of chronic fatigue and minor ailments, such as headaches and colds, which are associated with and sometimes precipitated by fatigue.

Student Activities and "Success in Life"

Only very limited aspects of success have been studied. The criteria most frequently employed have been inclusion in *Who's Who*, or some similar publication, of salary and rating by employers or associates. Previous investigations, although somewhat inconclusive in general, indicate a small advantage with respect to all these criteria in favor of students who were active in extracurriculum groups in high school and college. In the last three-year period several additional investigations have been made from somewhat different angles. Hoover (61), using Terman's Prediction Scale for Marital Happiness (which is a sort of vocational-interest test applied to the single vocation, marriage), found that 177 senior college women made significantly lower scores than did Terman's experimental group of happily married women. Participation in extracurriculum activities and consequent association with men did not seem to bring the college women to a favorable position in comparison with Terman's key group. However, the most favorable scores were made by students who expressed an equal preference for boys' and girls' companionship.

Characteristics of Student Leaders

The highest degree of participation in student activities is represented by leadership. This aspect has been extensively studied and is important for followers as well as for leaders. For every member of a group needs the insight to recognize and resist the influence of unscrupulous leaders, and to cooperate intelligently with worthy leaders. Moreover, in a democratic group there is no rigid distinction between leaders and followers because each member at times assumes a position of leadership. Rath (98) emphasized the fact that leadership is a phenomenon operating under specific conditions, both the process and the end results varying with the interaction of the group, the leader's personality, and the particular conditions in which he is placed. For this reason leadership "traits" should be described with reference to the specific situations in which they are manifested.

In the high-school field the most extensive study of leadership has been made prior to the three-year period covered by this review. Nothing published recently has modified the general conclusion that "although there

are individual differences in high school leaders, investigations indicate that students of better than average scholarship appear to be attracted to positions of leadership. The leaders also tended to be slightly superior in health, intelligence, and socio-economic status" (111: 222).

In college similar conditions with respect to leadership prevail. Wilkins' study (123) of the relationship between grades and participation in extra-curriculum activities is fairly typical of this type of investigation. The officer group had a grade average 4.16 points higher than that of the non-participating students. The critical ratio of this difference is 4.31, which provides a basis for a confident judgment that a difference greater than zero would always be found in favor of the officer group (123: 655). Low marks were notably absent in this group of student leaders, and all but one of the eight officers holding responsible positions of leadership in their senior year made a definitely better scholastic record than they had made in the two previous years. Quite another aspect of leadership has been discussed by Sanderson in his *Leadership for Rural Life* (102).

Contributions of Different Types of Activities

The range of student activities includes groups that are a dynamic influence for good, those whose functioning is purely perfunctory, and those which exert a detrimental influence on the development of students and on the institution. These diverse forms of organization may be classified under four types: policy-making and governing organizations; service, social, and recreational groups; esthetic and religious group experiences; and academic-interest groups and athletics (111: 86). As it is impossible, under the space limitations of this review, to summarize the many references on each of these types of groups, the attempt will be made merely to touch on a few of the most important and original contributions.

Policy-Making and Governing Organizations

The extent to which students should participate in government has long been a matter of controversy. While agreeing that there are "areas in which students may not actually formulate policies," Jarvie advocated that they "should at least participate in the *discussion* of all policies" (66: 224). As an illustration of his point of view, he described a report on assemblies, planned and developed by students themselves, which served as the basis for actual assemblies initiated and completely directed by the students. From Antioch College (52) came a plan of student-faculty cooperation in government that was highly unified, democratic, and educational. The program of the student council as reported at Cornell University (115) included activities of vital concern to students: surveys of student opinion on campus matters, policy-making with respect to athletics, the development of a freshman orientation program, and a "House Plan" for men's dormitory units. Student forums such as those described by Price (97) stimulate students to face and analyze campus problems.

From 1933 to 1941 a number of descriptions and discussions of student cooperation in the government of high schools have appeared (1, 2, 6, 7, 14, 34, 44). These articles emphasized vital real-life situations, extending beyond the school to the community, as the core of student government activities. The most recent report of student cooperation in high-school government was made by Kelley (70) under the auspices of the National Self-Government Committee, Inc. The 1431 replies to a brief questionnaire showed this form of student activity to be widespread. Two of the most serious limitations seemed to be that students were engaged only in trivial matters and that the officers did not function in the classroom. There is some indication that student cooperation in government is moving slowly in two directions: (a) toward participation by the entire student body instead of by only a small governing group, and (b) toward student-faculty cooperation in government as an educative process.

Service, Social, and Recreational Groups

Social sensitivity and maturity may be developed through service, social, and recreational groups. These avenues for student development have been seriously neglected (110). Although service activities are still frequently limited to narrow kinds of school service, in certain schools (14) the services rendered by student groups extend beyond the school into the community. "Aristotle went so far as to say that 'the whole end and object of education is training for the right use of leisure'" (111: 106).

There are some obvious vocational implications of social education. Wallace (120) reported that of four thousand office workers who lost their positions, 90 percent were said to have been dismissed because of deficiencies in character and personality. She stated that the kind of personality required for success in business is "more successfully developed as an extracurriculum activity than in regularly scheduled class work" (120: 153).

Some social groupings are casual or transitory, formed for conversation, dancing, or for entertainment of adult guests (111: 110-14). Others are hobby and special-interest groups. To children with special talents, hobby clubs offer an opportunity to work with others of the same interests (51). Most widely discussed are the sororities and fraternities (100).

During the past thirty years certain tendencies with respect to fraternities can be discerned. One of these tendencies is the integration of the fraternity with college life as a whole. The older cleavage between "Greeks" and "Barbarians" is becoming imperceptible, as fraternities contribute increasingly to college activities, as nonfraternity groups offer to all students many of the same advantages as the fraternity, and as many students voluntarily decide not to belong to the social fraternity. Another tendency is that toward improved scholarship in the fraternity. Recent investigations report relatively low scholarship among fraternity members less frequently than earlier studies. Still another tendency is the co-operative consideration of fraternity problems by representatives of the fraternities and of the college. This process of joint deliberation has probably contributed to the reduction of social frustration, to more wholesome and stimulating living conditions, and to greater attention to the best development of individual students (111: 127).

Esthetic and Religious Group Experiences

Since esthetic and religious experience may arise out of any situation, the group-work leader should be aware of esthetic and religious potentialities in all aspects of school and college life. Certain media, however, are definitely freighted with these experiences: an environment conducive to esthetic experiences, group work in the creative manual arts (113), group activities involving music and dramatics (84), or motion pictures and radio (40, 58, 80).

Religious experiences may be provided by programs of religious education handled with sincerity, insight, and psychological acumen (15, 23, 41, 91, 105). Horton pointed out the importance of helping young people to build "a religious structure that will be less susceptible to repudiation under the impact of increasing knowledge" (62:217). In addition to courses in religion and services of worship (43, 91), informal activities having religious emphasis are desirable, for "religion is not complete without group experience; group experience is not complete until it is religious" (9:14). Nor should opportunity for meditation be neglected (55, 120:67).

The most influential factor of all in the religious development of students is the personal influence of faculty and other students. Any interaction between teacher and student or within a group, if vital and creative, may be a religious experience out of which arise meanings, insights, and values (15, 57).

Several examples of coordinated programs of religious education have been reported. The program at Rollins College (119) illustrates the opportunities for religious education in class discussions that are part of the regular curriculum. The religious experiences derived from three Junior Hi-Y clubs was described by Dix (33). At George School, Pennsylvania (63), the religious program includes many group activities including neighborhood conferences dealing with social and civic problems and service clubs cooperating with social agencies in the community. Of the four methods, described by Bower (17), of making education eventuate in religious behavior, the first and most important is "participation in a group or groups in which religious attitudes are vitally operative" (17:6).

Articles in these two fields have been almost exclusively descriptive or philosophical, for both esthetic appreciation and religious vitality at present defy measurement. The effectiveness of group work in these areas can best be evaluated in terms of the individual student's increase in sensitivity and responsiveness to the ideal of the best life for all people.

Academic Interest Groups and Athletics

A large number of student group activities are closely associated with the curriculum, as "interclass" activity, informal activity during a regularly assigned period, or courses offered with or without credit. These

may take the form of departmental clubs, "group guidance" classes, honor societies, assemblies, and athletics.

Departmental clubs—These clubs are excrescences of subject-matter classes usually enriching the content of the curriculum in a particular field. Social studies clubs frequently discuss problems, national and international in scope, for which the handbook published by the National Education Association Committee on International Relations (39) will be found helpful. The evolution of the debating club in Columbia College into a "Public Discussion Council" was delightfully described by Hodnet (60). In a collection of articles entitled *Group Education for a Democracy* (73), Kilpatrick presented the idea of group work, not "as a separate field of work, but rather as a method to be used in all kinds of educational effort."

"Group guidance" classes—In the type of core curriculum devoted to personal and social problems, questions for discussion are suggested by students and the discussions are usually conducted by a student chairman (112:142-55). Somewhat more informal and spontaneous are the activities of the homeroom period created to restore certain values displaced by departmentalization. Dixon (35) reported that all but twelve of the seventy-three principals canvassed believed that the values attributed to the homeroom could not be achieved so well or at all by regular classes.

Leadership classes and seminars have been established in some high schools, and, according to Hand (54), in somewhat less than one in seven higher institutions; although the majority of the fifty colleges and universities responding to the questionnaire believed that a course or seminar in student-government problems or problems of campus leadership would be desirable. Battin (12) reported on a three-year experiment with a course designed to develop the ability of college students to lead discussion groups. This report supplies concrete material for a course in leadership or for use in a leadership institute. Zeleny (126:310-13) likewise presented important material on the training of leaders.

Descriptions of guidance through group activities may be found in several books and articles written during this period (3, 92). Several important experiments have been made to evaluate the outcomes of certain "group guidance" classes—Lincoln (78) and Remmers (11) on the high-school level, and Bennett (13) on the junior college level. However, none of these carefully conducted experiments gave conclusive statistical evidence of the efficacy of "group guidance" classes.

Assemblies—A new development in assembly programs was described in detail by Kuhn (75). This was a successful cooperative effort of the faculty and students of the State Teachers College at Trenton, New Jersey, using the assembly to enrich the cultural background of the students. There are enough illustrations of successful assemblies planned and conducted by students to warrant high schools and colleges moving still more rapidly in that direction.

Athletics—The potential values of athletics may be expressed in terms of specific attitudes, appreciations, abilities, and understandings (99). Whether these values are realized depends largely on program and personnel. Baker (8) obtained statements from 1,150 women and girls fifteen to twenty-five years of age which indicated that they tended to engage in less strenuous activities as they grew older. They apparently did not plan their individual patterns of activity. It is to be hoped that the popularization of athletics, as at the University of Iowa (28) and at the University of Wisconsin (59), may result in greater continuity of outdoor interests after graduation.

Student Publications

The staffs of student publications are more specialized, individualistic, and limited in membership than are most other student groups. Principals and teachers (19) believe that membership on a publication staff is worthwhile for the majority of students engaged in this activity. Twenty-five heads of schools of journalism, however, were not agreed as to the value of the school newspaper.

Criteria that may be applied to a wide variety of group activities have been stated and concretely illustrated in *The Practice of Group Work*, a series of accounts written by group leaders and edited by Sullivan (117).

Methods of Work with Groups

Methods of work with groups include all intelligent ways of getting results with classes, clubs, committees, and other organized or unorganized groups. In this area some of the most important researches in the field of group activities have recently been reported.

Description and Measurement of Interpersonal Relations

Three approaches to the study of interpersonal relations have been made: (a) the full descriptive account of a group activity, (b) the charting of relationships expressed by members of the group, and (c) the attempt to express human relations in quantitative terms or mathematical formulas.

The method of studying relationships in small groups by means of observation and short questionnaires was described and its sociological implications discussed by Newstetter and Newcomb (90). Lewin and his associates (77) have developed the "total behavior technique," which, as its name implies, involves consideration of both interpersonal relations and personal development of the participants in group activities. Rohrbaugh (101) especially emphasized the dynamic aspect of measuring group behavior. Equally significant is the recent work of French (47, 48) in discovering "some of the determinants of the behavior of interacting individuals in emotional situations." In order to gain further

understanding of the group-work process and interpersonal relations. Price (97) used the genetic approach, studying the processes of student life on two campuses—in Stephens College over a period of twenty-five years and at Stanford since its founding in 1892.

As a supplement to observation and as a check on whether the social structure manifested in overt behavior is the authentic feeling structure, an approach designated as *sociometry*, or the *sociometric technic*, has been developed. The *sociometric test*, the *sociogram*, and examples of *sociometric research* have been described in a number of important articles by Moreno (36, 37), Franz (45, 46), Zeleny (127), Jennings (67), Criswell (26, 27), and Johnson (68). This technic of studying the relations of individuals in a group might more appropriately be called *sociography* than *sociometry* because, with the exception of a few attempts to quantify the intensity of relationships, relations are on the whole uncovered and described rather than measured. The sociometric test may be useful in therapy as well as in research. It may also prove valuable to personnel workers in high school and college by helping them to discover natural leaders.

Experiments on Methods of Group Work

Every group leader is aware of the importance of the "atmosphere" or "social climate" of a classroom, club, or other group. This atmosphere is created, in large part, by the method of the leader. Following Pigors' earlier analysis of two contrasting methods of group work—*leadership* and *domination* (95), Lewin and his associates have recently reported important researches on the nature of authoritarian and of democratic leadership in several specific groups. The most complete account and bibliography of this series of investigations may be found in the 1940 University of Iowa bulletin, *Studies in Topological and Vector Psychology* (77). In these experiments the group and its activities were described with admirable adequacy; the authoritarian group and the democratic group were roughly equated with respect to initial interpersonal relations; and case studies of individual members were made. The results showed decided advantages in favor of the democratic groups. Autocracy tended to evoke either apathy or aggression; democracy, to produce kindly, considerate, and cooperative behavior and creative and productive work; "*laissez-faire*, in which there was a minimum of adult participation, proved decidedly different from democracy" (79:557).

Because these experiments are so close to the "real" world, the temptation to make wide applications of the results is great. This tendency is discouraged by the investigators themselves. The age of the subjects, the personality of the leader, the previous and present influence of the culture, and the nature of the group goals are only a few of the factors that might modify the results obtained in these experiments. Accordingly, it is important to repeat these experiments with various groups. In each case the structure and dynamics of the total situation should be fully described (111:248).

A very practical question, especially with reference to delinquents and mentally retarded children, is "Will democratic procedures work?" Kephart (71, 72), on the basis of his experiment at the Wayne County Training School in Northville, Michigan, answered this question in the affirmative. Permitted to govern themselves, this group of boys, whose mean age was 17.1 years and whose mean IQ was 65, demonstrated their "ability to manage their own affairs." No boy in this group has "committed any break of acceptable adolescent behavior" (71:583).

Play Therapy

The therapeutic value of group activities has been most highly developed in the treatment of maladjusted children. Designated as *play technic* or *play therapy*, this form of group activity combines many features of case work and group work. Many concrete examples of play therapy have been reported: Martin's description of psychiatry in a boys' club (83); Curran's account of group activities in an adolescent ward in Bellevue Psychiatric Hospital (30); Altshuler's experience for a year at Eloise Hospital, Michigan (4); and Cockerill and Witmer's evaluation of a psychiatric camp for children (22).

Psychodrama

Recognizing the therapeutic value of dramatics, Moreno and his associates have developed specific technics designated as the *psychodrama*, the *spontaneity test*, and *spontaneity training*. The technics are described in articles by Franz (45, 46), Sargent and Uhl in collaboration with Moreno (103), Dubin (38), and Borden (16). "The function of the psychodrama is to produce a catharsis and release of tension, thus preparing the individual for an easier adjustment in the real situation" (38:24). Skilfully employed, it has diagnostic as well as therapeutic values.

Group Discussion

Although group discussion is the most widely used of all the group technics, it has been subjected to very little experimentation. However, the published experience of skilful discussion leaders is of decided practical value (111:254-65). There have been two important investigations bearing on the methodology of group discussion. Murphy and Likert (88) had nothing positive to report with respect to the modification of attitudes through group influence. Simpson (108, 109) developed a research method for attacking the problem. He found that the college students who exerted the greatest influence on others' opinions in group discussion were not definitely superior to their fellow students in certain tests of scholastic aptitude, emotional stability, self-sufficiency, introversion-

extroversion dominance, and sociability, but were definitely differentiated from those of low influence in discussion in two respects, namely, being Jewish, and scoring high on a radicalism test.

Study of the group-work process has resulted in certain methods of ascertaining both the structure and the feeling aspect of interpersonal relations. Experiments on methods of group work have yielded hypotheses regarding the influence of different kinds of leadership. In play techniques the therapeutic aspect of group activities has been highly developed and a beginning has been made in studying the process of group discussion.

Environmental Influences

Organized groups and informal activities are often handicapped by lack of physical facilities. Each activity requires a certain physical setting to facilitate the group process. It is encouraging that Engelhardt and Engelhardt in a general book on school buildings (42) emphasized and illustrated the responsibility of the school for providing space and equipment for group activities.

During the last three years new developments in student unions have been reported in several articles: a description of the large house equipped to serve as a junior college union building at Highland Park, Michigan (37); an account of the student union building at the University of Pennsylvania (116); and a list of suggested physical facilities for a completely equipped student union (56).

Except for the survey of living conditions in 151 teachers colleges made by the American Association of Teachers Colleges (36), Peck's discussion (94) of the esthetic experiences possible in the college residence hall, and Leonard's handbook for the chaperon and house mother (76), the references on the group-life aspects of housing have been meager. Jameson (64) interviewed 571 girls in a university to ascertain their attitudes toward six phases of collective living but no extensive experimental study of the effect of different housing conditions was reported in this period.

Evaluation of Group Work and Research Needed

Evaluation of group work should be made in terms of (a) changes in the individual student and in the community, (b) the group-work process itself, (c) control-group experimentation, and (d) opinions of students and graduates. Reports of evaluation during this three-year period have been chiefly opinion surveys (18, 39, 104). In general, students and graduates, on all educational levels, emphasized the value of informal social contacts, were enthusiastic about many of their group activities, and desired more guidance in the use of leisure time.

Further Research Needed

A pattern of research related to group work might well include the following features:

1. Study of groups *in vivo*. This would consist of observation of both leader and members, including records of sequences of behavior and interaction among all the persons in the group. Thus information on conditions which maintain or hinder co-operation in specific situations would be obtained (10). In addition to this record of the group process as manifested in overt behavior, the sociometric technic and the interview should be employed so as to ascertain the feeling relations in the group. Such detailed study should be made of many groups of various ages, abilities, and backgrounds, engaged in different kinds of group enterprises. An experimental slant may be introduced by noting changes in relations and behavior that take place after a definite modification of policy or procedure has been made. This type of research involving the total situation is likely to be more rewarding than attempts to find the specific cause for a specific outcome.
2. Case studies of individual members of groups. Intensive study of individuals is obviously necessary for an evaluation in terms of changes made in individuals. From many detailed studies of persons who have engaged or are engaging in definitely described group activities, the effect of participation in groups on individuals of various abilities, backgrounds, and achievements could be determined. Answers might be obtained to such questions as: "Is participation in group activities equally stimulating to persons of different levels of mental ability?" "At what point does participation become excessive?" "In what ways does participation in extracurriculum activities affect the student's scholarship?" "Is the group situation significant to individuals chiefly in terms of human relations?" "What kind of satisfactions do individuals get from doing things together?" (122). By this method the continuity of interest in the activity in after life could also be studied.
3. Study of trends by repeating certain carefully planned surveys and investigations at intervals of five or ten years.
4. Self-surveys in individual schools and colleges. By this method an institution may evaluate its group work in the light of its educational objectives, its faculty, its facilities, and its community contacts.

Research in this area is difficult. One must approach it cautiously, avoiding the error of attempting to measure the unmeasurable. Yet difficulty is not a justification for being content with quick, easy, and fictitious results. The complexities of social behavior can be accurately described and astutely interpreted even though they cannot be reduced to mathematical formulas.

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CHAPTER V

Educational and Vocational Information¹

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MOST STUDIES involving educational and vocational information are concerned with the relationships between education and courses of study, and employment and occupations. For that reason graduate students often analyze school situations in an effort to harmonize school practices with employment opportunities; or they may survey occupations and workers for the purpose of applying the findings to curriculum revision or improvement of educational opportunity. The researches with guidance implications (59, 60, 107) in this field, therefore, are grouped under two rather large classifications: (a) educational, or those which investigate training and educational opportunities, including schools, curriculums, courses, and programs; and (b) occupational, or those chiefly concerned with employment, occupational analyses, and the investigations of occupational trends.

Education in Relation to Vocations

Elementary Education

In the elementary school the need of guidance programs was analyzed by a few researchers (6). Tenenbaum (151) reported that 20 percent of the children in three New York elementary schools were unhappy. Brueckner and others (20) noted a trend toward adapting the elementary-school curriculum to the individual needs of pupils and advocated measures for more effective mental hygiene programs in schools, as well as guidance with respect to motion picture and radio programs. Freeston (51) studied the vocational interests of one hundred elementary-school children five to thirteen years of age and found that the higher the intelligence level the "more impossible the goal." He also concluded that the children were inspired less by relatives and known workers than by their heroes and heroines, "the boys being most affected by the world of sports and the girls by the cinema." Programs for gifted children (30) were surveyed; a seventh-grade course of study in occupational information was designed to develop community and school cooperation (56); and community relationships and orientation were analyzed (85, 88, 130).

Secondary Education

In the field of secondary education, research included analytical studies of school systems (83, 89, 109), promising practices (72), cumulative records (128, 150, 156), articulation (120, 138), Negro children (123), scholastic achievement (94), and numerous other topics (83).

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 100.

Schooling and vocational adjustment—A comprehensive New York State survey (105) of schools and occupational adjustment was made by the Regents' Inquiry in a series of thirteen publications. The study was characterized by a survey of the school and out-of-school activities of pupils to show the relation of schooling with adjustment in vocational life. Little relation was found between courses taken in general high schools and occupations of graduates, and curriculum groupings appeared to have been made on the basis of intelligence alone. Of the boys, 63 percent graduating from vocational high schools entered work for which they were trained. It was recommended that initial vocational education courses be planned to meet the needs of the large number of drop-outs as well as of those who plan to graduate, and further recommended that vocational education be differentiated on a basis of grade accomplishment at three levels: (a) Through Grade IX: "Introductory survey courses should acquaint pupils with the major vocational opportunities and requirements of important occupational fields, and should help each pupil analyze his own interests and abilities in relation to the learnings involved. Each pupil should have a sufficiently wide range of such experiences to insure an intelligent choice when he must decide on his future educational career." (b) From Grade X through Grade XII for the pupil whose full-time schooling will presumably end with the secondary-school period: "To develop such habits and attitudes as will lead to vocational activity he has chosen; to acquaint himself with these major vocational processes in the particular field which will make him an apt learner on the job; to gain a knowledge of the conditions of work, and wages paid; to gain knowledge of the kind of training necessary for advancement in the field, and of where and how to obtain that training; and to secure training in basic elementary skills and to secure sufficient training in specialized skills to provide him with the marketable ability necessary to obtain a beginning job." (c) Beyond high school for those having finished the 12th grade or having demonstrated their vocational competence under adult working conditions: "The courses in the vocational and technical institutes should be designed to furnish up-grading vocational education and preparation for vocations offered beyond 12th grade but under college level."

In a number of individual schools offerings and curriculums were studied (39, 64) with varied findings and recommendations. The negative aspects (77) were often pointed out and some recommendations were made such as a more flexible curriculum for all pupils accompanied by a wide range of elective courses (96), a growth process involving the whole individual rather than only his mental machinery (139), and current curriculum materials (87). Long and short courses were recommended for incorporation into the curriculum of full-time general high schools because 90 percent of employed youth are engaged in agriculture, manufacture, mechanical industries, clerical occupations, domestic work, and

trades; and further because nearly three-fourths of high-school courses are academic, and vocational courses are usually exploratory for students in general education (117). The values of certain high-school subjects were appraised by graduates through follow-up inquiries. The results lead one to believe that more thought should have been given to both question and answer in spite of the fact that the findings of several studies appear to agree (137, 179). English, commercial subjects, and public speaking were most useful to alumni, while social studies, foreign languages, and mathematics were of least value.

To help solve certain employment problems special courses and selective procedures were proposed. Public-school training for household employment (34) was analyzed to reveal the extent of opportunities for such training and the problems involved. A retail selling course in New Jersey (55) was justified by an inquiry into the vocational choices of pupils, the number of graduates entering store positions in the state, and employment trends. Haas (65) proposed cooperative part-time retail training programs. A plan for teaching occupations in junior high school was developed (67), and related instruction for plumber apprentices (63) was suggested. The selection of students for nurses' training was studied, and significant correlations between IQ's, mechanical aptitude, and reading scores were found (54). In vocational agriculture, boys in Illinois were found to be poorly selected (74).

Evaluation of the Guidance Program

One point of departure in studying the services and effectiveness of school programs was to "evaluate" curriculums, pupil activity programs, library services, guidance practices, educational outcomes, and other features of instruction or administration (104). To improve methods for evaluating high schools and to develop an instrument that could be used by a high-school faculty in evaluating its own program, that would motivate improvement of secondary-school instruction and operation, and that could be used by an outside committee for the purpose of accreditation, the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, organized in 1933, issued several studies (29). Two hundred schools were selected and nine items of evaluative criteria were applied: curriculum, pupil activity, library, guidance, instruction, outcomes, staff, plant, and administration. The main contributions of the study were the assembling of evaluative materials acceptable to secondary-school people, and the excellence with which these evaluative materials were translated into practical instruments for evaluation.

Evaluative studies of guidance programs revealed that if the value of a guidance course depends upon its affecting pupils' choices it may as well be abandoned (135) since it was the least influential factor in determining occupational choices (in New York). A series of criteria for vocational guidance programs, and various devices for measuring the extent to which

an existing program measures up to the criteria, were accumulated by the Stanford Evaluation Workshop (5). An evaluation of the educational and vocational guidance program at Worcester Polytechnic Institute (71), made by following up boys who had participated in the program since its beginning, indicated that 94 percent were satisfied with their choices. Other evaluative studies revealed weaknesses in pupil activity, in guidance service, in practical high-school courses (167), in curriculum, staff and guidance facilities (11, 171), in six-year programs (174), and in local schools (22, 127).

Guidance in the Homeroom

The homeroom as a topic for research received its share of prominence, owing perhaps to the convenience with which graduate students are able to visit and study it. Homerooms in a number of local schools were investigated (124) and found to be sources of specific information about school activities and agencies of guidance in all its phases. Attitudes of 110 Iowa teachers (145) revealed that homerooms were considered a vital part of school organization and that although their administrative function is overemphasized they can be organized on a basis of personality and character development and afford more time for group and individual guidance. Still another study of 105 schools in 43 states and the District of Columbia (156) reported that homeroom teachers were not required to have special training in guidance, although in-service training was sometimes provided. Neither adequate time nor personnel was provided for guidance activities. Half of the schools in the study offered vocational guidance programs, but few provided any means for evaluating the effectiveness of their procedures.

Guidance Programs

The need for guidance in general was stressed by numerous studies, many of which were based on findings of local schools or school systems. In Virginia a survey of 356 out of 430 accredited schools recommended a more effective program of guidance for high schools (175). In a number of areas the program of guidance was out of touch with accepted theory and practice.

Guidance practices in secondary schools, including educational and vocational guidance, were described at length by Yeo (180) and by others who studied individual schools or systems. The essentials of a good guidance program for secondary schools were described by Strang (147). The Vermont Board of Education (168) prepared a manual for the general approach to guidance through group, homeroom, and individual counseling for Grades VII to XII in the public schools. A guidance program for small high schools (176) was proposed after a study of the situation in the Marianna, Pennsylvania, high schools. Cromwell (31) outlined a program of guidance and applied it to high schools in Maryland. A record

of practice and progress in guidance and counseling at the Samuel J. Tilden High School, a large New York school, was outlined; such activities were described as work with groups toward coordination, clearing-house for information, work with individuals, and administration, organization, and personnel (12). Further descriptions are given in the following chapter.

Counseling

While counseling was treated extensively in Chapter III, a few notes will be added at this point. Without counselors or supervisors, guidance programs in schools or communities are but feeble efforts to help youth make their choices of careers and chose the proper training for placement. In a study of 23,032 public high schools (63) it was found that only 6 percent provide counselors or guidance officers on a half- or more than half-time basis; and that in the 1,297 schools with guidance officers, there were approximately 900 pupils for each counselor. More than half of the pupils in New York, Maryland, California, and Rhode Island were provided with counseling service. Sixty-one percent of the counselors and guidance officers in public high schools were employed in New York, California, Pennsylvania, Michigan, New Jersey, Illinois, and Ohio.

Counseling and the changing curriculum in ninety secondary schools were studied by Bergstresser (16) to show how some communities were attempting to improve educational opportunities. Counseling of secondary-school students in Ilion, New York (172), was facilitated by the use of achievement and intelligence tests, with particular regard to curriculum selection, differentiated assignments, marking and promotion, and remedial work in reading, arithmetic, and study habits.

Occupational counseling technics (142) described by Stead, Shartle, and others who carried major responsibility for worker-analysis studies of the U. S. Employment Service covered such items as oral trade questions, rating forms, selection and construction of sets of items, data analysis methods, technics of measurement and occupational relationships. Osborne explained the formulation of oral trade questions designed to measure trade knowledge possessed by job seekers. The applicability of the questions was verified in various parts of the country, and data analyzed so that final lists of the best questions could be arranged for later practical application in counseling work. The eight most valuable types of questions proved to be those dealing with definitions, limitations, use, procedures, location, names, purpose, and numbers. Although standardized for 126 occupations, trade questions cannot be used successfully for a large number of occupations; it was found that even in the highly skilled trades there are limitations to the number of questions which can be devised.

For use in counseling, a series of guidance charts was prepared by the faculty of Champaign (Illinois) Senior High School to present graphically the educational and cultural values of school subjects and show their relationship to modern vocations. (26).

Student Plans and Choices

One difficult task for the counselor after advising a boy or girl vocationally is to suggest a choice of educational institutions where adequate training leading to employment may be undertaken. With the multitude of colleges, trade schools, and doubtful propriety institutions in the United States, few of which are approved by accepted accrediting agencies, counselors welcome studies which help in the choice of a school or college. A number of directories were issued: authorized descriptions of 725 accredited colleges and universities (95); nursing schools as classified by the National League of Nursing Education (101); the U. S. Office of Education directories of colleges and universities listing institutions approved by national or regional agencies (113, 40); and the 1939 College Blue Book containing pertinent information about college selection (73).

Studies on occupational choice revealed that high-school pupils in Portland, Oregon, were predominantly interested in the professions (90) whereas out-of-school youth "showed more sense of occupational reality." Girls tended to choose the overcrowded fields of clerical work "while this field was slighted by the boys listed, for whom considerable opportunity exists." Salesmanship led in popularity for boys. From their study of 107 freshmen in four social science classes, Bateman and Remmers (10) concluded that the use of career books produced significant changes in the attitudes of students toward occupations, and that after studying career books students were less favorable toward the occupations of their choice. A lack of balance between preferences and existing opportunities was found after a 4-year investigation of nearly 30,000 high-school seniors in Wisconsin (23) and 24 percent of the boys and 14 percent of the girls were undecided as to their future. A general conclusion was advanced that guidance procedures cannot be intelligently determined at present because of confusion of aims and purposes of American education.

Since the establishment of the Occupational Information and Guidance Service, Vocational Division, U. S. Office of Education, in 1933, the staff has been engaged in making numerous special studies, bibliographies, and researches in the field of guidance. These cover the need not only for specific training of guidance workers but for use of cumulative records, determination of the essentials of a guidance program, occupational and educational information, follow-up studies of graduates, occupational surveys, and other data which concern occupational and educational relationships (61, 62, 63, 107, 123, 181).

Higher Education

Because a university is a community in itself, the guidance situation is different from that in secondary schools. The liberal arts college, whether independent or the core of a university, must accept the guidance responsibility of assisting students to enter employment or professional schools. The professional school is in effect a vocational school wherein a student

is learning a particular field of work, if not training for a particular job. Studies, then, in the field of higher education with implications for guidance may relate to trends, the junior college movement, occupational orientation, and student employment.

Recent trends in higher education (73) pointed to more individualization: reduction of student programs of study from five or more courses to four or less, interrelation of subjects, avoidance of narrow specialization, and acceptance of responsibility for guidance. The Chicago College Plan including guidance phases was evaluated after ten years of operation (13). Curriculum and instruction in higher education were analyzed for 276 colleges in the North Central Association (21). For those interested in figures the U. S. Office of Education issued *Statistics of Higher Education for 1937-38* and similar biennial documents that are valuable historical sources as to trends with reference to enrolments, college finance, professional students, degrees, and other items (161).

The junior college movement (93) was the subject of several local studies which concerned evaluation of educational opportunities for youth (19, 126) and criteria for the establishment of public junior colleges proposed for Kentucky (1), Texas (43, 169), and New Jersey (173). Eells (37) furnished information on 494 approved junior colleges, and Johnson (79) on the duties and obligations of junior college deans.

✓ Occupational orientation of college students was undertaken in the occupational laboratory of General College, University of Minnesota, to permit a more individualized technic in presenting guidance material (66). A semester course in orientation was required of students entering Grades XI and XIII of the Pasadena (California) Junior College; it was found (15) in evaluating the outcomes that the orientation course functioned satisfactorily in its informational aspects, but that more time should be given to mental hygiene and personality study.

✓ In paying for a college education at least one out of every three college students is engaged in some part-time employment (62). An inquiry made in forty-two Michigan colleges of 2,939 students on NYA college and graduate aid studied personal histories, economic status of families, and types of duties performed (122). It was found that students employed part-time were able to do satisfactory college work if they budgeted their time carefully. Academic and extracurriculum achievements of working women students (98) were not harmfully affected by a moderate amount of employment; while working did not depress marks, it tended to diminish an expected rise, and partially self-supporting students did not carry a lighter academic load when they were working. In a 2-year study (119) of 246 Ohio State University students in 1937 it was found that: outside employment as an excuse or alibi for failure, dismissals, absences, and requests for readmission is sheer rationalization; the nonworkers had almost identical academic experiences; if a student has the mental capacity, he can work without fear of poor marks. In Kansas State Teachers College a moderate worker group of students employed six to twenty-one hours per

week ranked highest in academic success; a group working twenty-four or more hours per week ranked second; and a group working fewer than four hours per week ranked lowest (134).

Research on Occupational Opportunities

Classification of Occupations

Prior to the issuance of the dictionary of occupational titles no adequate occupational classification had been standardized and every writer developed his own classification, usually based upon the outmoded census data. In 1939 Rulon and Blanton (129) arranged a code system for the classification of various types of workers using the ten major divisions of the census and sixty-six industrial fields. In 1940 a classified index of occupations in the United States (160) and an alphabetical index (159) were issued by the U. S. Department of Commerce to aid in standardization of occupational classifications. With some modifications the occupational classification in the index is the standard classification formulated during 1933 and 1939 by an interdepartmental committee sponsored by the American Statistical Association and the Central Statistical Board. The arrangement of the census classification, however, differs somewhat from the arrangement of the Standard Classification and a considerable number of the composite occupation groups of that classification have been subdivided in the census classification (160).

Perhaps the dictionary of occupational titles was one of the most outstanding pieces of occupational research for guidance officers (163). In June 1940 the dictionary of occupational titles was released (1939 imprint) enabling authors, interviewers, and researchers to use standard classifications and code numbers for American occupations. Based on the findings of 54,189 job analyses resulting from observation of jobs by trained analysts, 17,452 separate jobs were defined and 12,292 alternate titles mentioned. A significant occupational classification and code were incorporated and conversion tables for the census made available. The dictionary, unique in many respects, especially in its value to those interested in the classification of American occupations, marked the completion of a major step in the Occupational Research Program conducted by the Division of Standards and Research of the U. S. Employment Service. Seven classifications embrace all occupations: (a) professional and managerial occupations; (b) clerical and sales occupations; (c) service occupations; (d) agricultural, fishery, and forestry occupations; (e) skilled occupations; (f) semiskilled occupations; and (g) unskilled occupations.

These classifications have been largely adopted by the 1940 Census, although to check the agricultural situation of the country, eleven classifications are being used: (a) professional and semiprofessional workers; (b) farmers and farm managers; (c) proprietors, managers, and official, except farm; (d) clerical, sales, and kindred workers; (e) craftsmen, fore-

men and kindred workers; (f) operatives and kindred workers; (g) domestic service workers; (h) protective service workers; (i) service workers, except domestic and protective; (j) farm laborers and foremen; and (k) laborers, except farm.

The job definitions and descriptions were prepared for the use of public employment offices and related vocational services, information being obtained by trained field analysts from direct observation and job analyses for the most part, augmented by other sources of occupational data such as associations, libraries, and employers. Wages, hours, and jurisdictional matters are not considered.

Occupational Trends

The prediction of trends in occupations was undertaken and a number of sources of information have been published to aid in foretelling future needs. The biennial census of manufactures, 1937, a well-organized piece of research, reported on manufacturing and printing and publishing industries and gave detailed reports for cities having 25,000 inhabitants or more (158). Industrial and agricultural trends in relation to the demand for labor in the St. Louis area were set forth (166) by the U. S. Employment Service as an aid to the development of methods and procedures which can be applied to the solution of similar problems in comparable areas. Rochester (New York) industries cooperated with the Board of Education in a survey concerning the number employed in mechanical industries, graphic arts, building trades, electrical, chemical, clothing, textile, and shoe manufacturing industries. The findings and reports of trends helped school teachers in the guidance and placement of local students (170). Anderson and Davidson (4) studied occupational trends based on the census of occupations 1870-1930 to show shifts in occupations due to various influences. Occupational trends in California with implications for vocational education considered such factors as employment, volume, pay rolls, earnings, duties of workers, and training opportunities (24).

Edwards (36) inquired into the financial ability of the various states in relation to their youth population to support public education; and education in relation to occupational trends. "The modern worker must be prepared to shift from job to job, from occupation to occupation, and even from industry to industry." Holly (75) suggested a technic for forecasting the replacements needed in 11 selected professions in 6 selected cities. As the needs for professional workers vary among individual communities, no blanket forecast derived from data for the United States would be adequate. The procedure was recommended as of value for guidance, and for controlling the numbers of students to be admitted to professional schools. Occupational trends in Iowa with implications for vocational education were summarized to show a pronounced shift from agricultural to other occupational fields, a marked increase in the number of women employed in commercial pursuits, an increase in the number

of men employed in manufacturing and trade, and a need for a broader program of preparatory training (23, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49).

Occupational Surveys

Community surveys of occupational opportunities for the benefit of youth have been carried on in a number of areas and more are in prospect in certain cities. Although these local surveys do not follow identical plans, the information obtained and the predictions made are of vital importance in community counseling. Steps in making a community survey include preliminary planning; determining the scope, content, and method; preparing the work plan and budget; preparing forms; introducing the survey; directing survey personnel; collecting the data; and editing and tabulating the material (181). The following are examples of such surveys:

Arkansas. Occupations in 107 business firms in Fort Smith, Arkansas, were surveyed (155) to show the need for vocational guidance of pupils in the business department of the high school.

Georgia. The Georgia Youth Survey (103), completed in 1939, helped Georgia youth to know the actual number and classification of the jobs existing in the state's largest cities, and aided young people to view intelligently the occupational pattern of their communities in fitting themselves into the employment picture as it actually existed.

Illinois. Schloerb (132), in a description of procedures and work accomplished by the Chicago Department of Occupational Research, offered occupational information and accounts of trends useful in guidance and in curriculum revision.

Iowa. A vocational survey of Davenport (50) was made to determine the need for vocational education as related to training for entrance into city occupations.

Ohio. The occupational pursuits and vocational opportunities of girls and women (7) and of boys and men (8) in Toledo were analyzed as a basis for planning a girls' vocational education program. The Canton occupational survey of 1938 aimed to give a picture of the local employment situation with a view to developing in the young people a proper understanding of their occupational opportunities (14).

Pennsylvania. An occupational survey in Oil City was carried out (32) to determine the extent to which the offerings of vocational shop work in the schools were justified by the demand for industrial workers. Industries of New Castle (38) were surveyed for vocational education. A survey of Pittsburgh (58) revealed that half of the young people got jobs through their own efforts or those of friends, rather than through the schools.

In addition to occupational surveys, there were surveys of agriculture, economic status, employment, women's work, and occupational requirements.

Agriculture—Hatch and Lathrop (70) devised procedures to be followed in making local surveys to discover occupational opportunities for young men in farming.

Economic Status

Economic conditions of youth sixteen to twenty-five years of age tend to be determined to a measurable extent by those of their parents (125). All evidence points to the fact that there is a definite relationship between socio-economic level of the family and the occupation and education of its youth. Stratification will continue as long as employment opportunities are so largely dependent upon the family's economic status. A study of 150 Iowa families (28) shows different aspects of depression conditions on laborers, farmers, and businessmen. Edwards (35) attempted to group gainful workers belonging to the same socio-economic class without particular reference to the different occupations pursued or to the specific skills involved. In a study of parental income and college opportunities, Goetsch (57) found that equal educational opportunity is not enjoyed in Milwaukee. Greenleaf (61) analyzed replies from more than 46,000 alumni (1928-35) in twenty states. A standard questionnaire was returned by thirty-one cooperating universities. One of the findings was that median salaries of men ranged from \$1,314 for those one year out of college to \$2,383 for those out eight years, whereas median salaries of women increased over the period from \$1,092 to \$1,606.

Age and Employment

A survey of job placement facilities in a city and a statistical analysis of the data were accomplished in Worcester, Massachusetts (106). The reduction in employment in 1937-38 in twenty-six New England factories resulted in an increase in the proportion of workers in each five-year age group over thirty years, and a decrease in the proportion in groups under that age (110). Employers expressed a high regard for the older workers. Two-thirds of the men hired were under thirty-five years of age, but in 1937-38 two-thirds of the lay-offs were also from this group. Productivity records for three firms indicated no definite tendencies toward diminution in production with advancing age, except in a few special jobs. Some employers preferred young workers because of their versatility and flexibility, and also because the prospect of pensions was not so immediate. Fitzgerald (42) analyzed employment opportunities in four manufacturing plants in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, to determine the chances of inexperienced youth in competing for jobs with older workers who have been laid off previously.

Women's Work

The legal status of women in the United States, 1938, according to studies by the Women's Bureau (162), indicated their civil and political

rights, including the rights to their earnings and to the earnings of their children. A striking uniformity was noted in the ratio of women's wages to men's. In spite of changes in the general wage level, in business conditions, or in source of labor supply, and regardless of locality, type of industry, period of time, method of pay, or other qualifying factors women's wages fall below those of men (113, 114, 115). A survey of the status of married women (17) indicated that there is liberality toward married women employees in the South and Middlewest, and in consumers goods industries; that married women are more acceptable as factory workers than as office employees in some plants; that there is more liberality in the retention than in the hiring of married women; and that there is in general a definite trend toward an increase in the proportion of married to single women workers.

Women with chemistry training found positions chiefly in the medical field, in high-school teaching, in research, and in the nonchemical fields; and the percentage of unemployed is small (52). The position of dean of women as a personnel officer in colleges, universities, normal schools, teachers colleges, and high schools (148) was analyzed. Boston agencies that offer vocational testing, counseling, and free placement were surveyed in one study (91), and suggestions were offered for improving the counseling services for out-of-school young women.

Occupational Requirements and Information

Nineteen fields of professional endeavor and 59 nonprofessional occupations in New York State are licensed and regulated by state law (99). State legislation permits personal qualification requirements to be determined by local legislation in 48 occupations. State statutory restrictions that pare away a person's "individualism in entering and pursuing any occupation he may choose" were shown (69) to increase the growing need for vocational guidance. The 1939 requirements for certification of teachers and administrators for elementary schools, secondary schools, and junior colleges were summarized by Woellner and Wood (177).

Besides the dictionary of occupational titles, a great deal of occupational research has been devoted to descriptions of jobs, job analyses, and monographs covering a single occupation or an occupational family. A number of these studies were written primarily for guidance and placement officers who collect occupational information for the purpose of advising boys and girls about careers, requirements, training opportunities, and employment. The content of a good occupational monograph from the standpoint of the counselor was outlined for the use of those engaged in making such studies by a research committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association (102). New job descriptions (164) issued by the U. S. Employment Service covered the cleaning, dyeing, and pressing industry, bakery products industry, domestic service and personal service occupations, garment manufacturing industry, industrial

service and maintenance jobs, and the lumber and lumber products industry. Science Research Associates (133) issued a collection of monographs with essential facts on the 100 most common occupations in America—occupations in which 75 percent of the working people are employed.

In addition several studies were made on specific occupations or on units discussing a single industry or trade (81). The history of the Federal Civil Service since 1789 was summarized in a document of the Civil Service Commission (157) and O'Rourke (108) furnished further details about government employment. In six cities in Oklahoma there were more jobs for general clerical workers than for other employees and a particular need was noted for those who could perform more than one clerical duty successfully; practically all clerical workers were graduated from high school and half of them attended a business college (144).

Vocational information for the foundry industry in the St. Louis area, prepared by the Job Analysis and Information Section of the St. Louis Research Center, answered questions on the history of molding, the making of castings, on working conditions, hazards, wages, and opportunities of work (165). Machine shop occupations in Philadelphia were analyzed by Horowitz to aid in the guidance and training of youth in public schools (76); data on the number, nature, and requirements of such occupations were furnished by 172 firms employing 90 percent of the workers. A study of the printing trades and their workers (27), sponsored by the Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association, revealed opportunities for employment in various localities throughout the United States. An analysis of selected positions in public social work in fourteen states was made by the American Public Welfare Association after surveying a group of public welfare agencies (3). Opportunities and requirements for shipmasters on the Great Lakes were studied by Satterly (131).

Teaching as a career was analyzed by several writers. Experience during the first five years in tenure and in nontenure states was traced through questionnaire replies from 1933 teacher-training graduates (100). Fernberger (41) found that a woman has forty chances out of one hundred of obtaining a position in academic psychology.

Follow-Up Studies

Various individual schools and groups of schools found out what happened to their recent graduates (82) and added new occupational material of particular value to counselors and to those interested in curriculum revision. In the college field the University of Michigan followed up the 1928-36 graduates in government service to determine the nature of their work and its relationship to their university training (136). Graduates of 1928-35 in thirty-one cooperating higher educational institutions were studied with respect to economic status (61). Gannaway (53) found that scholastic failure was the most frequent cause

among 157 freshman women who dropped out of college, although half of the withdrawing students continued training at other educational institutions. Secretarial science and medical secretarial courses at Colby Junior College (New Hampshire) were fulfilling their function as terminal courses; a large number of graduates were continuing to study or work with no definite vocation aim in mind (153).

Fifty subjects were selected to determine whether the Columbus (Ohio) Counseling Bureau was carrying out its functions as a guidance center (121). That schools were not meeting the needs of those of superior ability was a conclusion of Terman (152), who summarized the results of a follow-up of 93 percent of the original group of intellectually gifted children.

In the secondary field, follow-up studies have been carried on widely in many individual schools. For example, in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina (97), it was found that 13 percent of the 487 graduates in 1939 were attending colleges, and 16 percent other educational institutions; of those employed, the majority had secured jobs through personal application or friends and relatives, rather than through agencies; 30 percent of the 144 drop-outs left school because of failure or indifference, 29 percent left to go to work, and 41 percent left for miscellaneous reasons. Findings of a follow-up study in the Philadelphia public schools, 1936-37, related to the influence of economic conditions on employment, further education of the graduates, effect of the age handicap on ability to secure employment, and relation of training received to positions obtained (111). The implications of a follow-up study for guidance and curriculum were emphasized by Foy (44).

In addition to surveys and follow-up studies some attention was given to investigating the average net incomes of dentists (84), osteopathic physicians (86), professional engineers (92), school employees (130), and nurses (2); merit rating scales in representative branches of industry (141); occupational success (146, 149); unemployment (154); and limitation of occupational opportunities because of religious belief (143).

Meeting Youth Needs

Among the different suggestions advanced for meeting the needs of youth there were these statements: each community should build its own program (140); standards in the commercial field in junior high school should be increased (9); information should be gathered by means of a community youth survey on numbers and wants of out-of-school youth (25); more specific job training and more advice in planning further education was the need of New York youth who had left school (33); the lack of educational and recreational facilities contributed to delinquency and incorrigibility, while training for leisure created higher standards of living (80).

The importance of building an educational program around preparation for work was stressed by the findings of a Philadelphia study (112) describing what happened to 9,457 young people after they left the public schools. The schools needed more educational and vocational guidance services, clarification of the objectives of the academic curriculum, and courses in family relationships. In addition the junior employment service needed to be enlarged in order to serve adequately out-of-school, out-of-work youth. Because 1,750,000 young people enter the labor market every year, the problem of matching youth and jobs was attacked by the American Youth Commission. Bell (13) concluded that federal and state agencies have important contributions to make in the development of adjustment programs. For practical purposes the local labor market was pointed out not only as an appropriate area in which to conduct research, but as an occupational adjustment laboratory, and an area in which to conduct certain operating phases of an occupational adjustment program. Coordination of activities and agencies was mentioned as an essential characteristic of an effective adjustment program. Schools should give students an awareness of their occupational potentialities, and an effective school will offer vocational education as an essential element to enrich curriculums and supplement vocational guidance. The whole adjustment process should lead directly to placement.

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CHAPTER VI

Programs of Guidance¹

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THE NUMBER of recent articles and monographs describing programs of guidance is fairly large, but the amount of research in this area continues to be small. Numerous difficulties beset any attempt to appraise guidance programs either by means of a carefully controlled experimental procedure or through rigid statistical analysis. The complex of variables in any normal guidance situation is rather baffling even to trained research workers. It is not surprising, therefore, that counselors who write in this field usually present general surveys or enthusiastic reports of their own guidance practices accompanied only by subjective appraisal of the results.

It is encouraging to note, however, that the three-year period covered by this review probably has produced more significant research pertaining to guidance programs than any similar earlier period. The American Youth Commission, the New York Regents' Inquiry, the Implementation Commission of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the Study of the Relations of Secondary and Higher Education in Pennsylvania, the Educational Records Bureau, and other groups have issued reports that have important implications for the guidance and personnel programs of secondary schools, and perhaps of colleges.

The published reports on programs of guidance tend to fall naturally into the following divisions: (a) elementary-school guidance, (b) guidance in secondary schools, (c) personnel programs in higher institutions, (d) out-of-school and adult guidance, and (e) programs of guidance in other countries. The second and third groups, which contain the bulk of the reports, can be subdivided into (a) surveys of guidance practices and procedures, (b) studies of the value of certain guidance procedures and of various means of appraisal, (c) studies leading to identification of problems of interest to counselors and personnel workers, and (d) descriptions of programs usually confined to a single institution or school system.

The present report will follow the organization just outlined. It is realized that the descriptions of programs as indicated in the fourth subdivision as a rule contain little or nothing of a research nature, but it is believed that some of these articles by their very concreteness may offer more real help to counselors in service than do some survey studies which present a formidable array of statistics from which only fairly broad and rather vague conclusions can be drawn.

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 120.

Elementary-School Program

Few studies and articles dealing with elementary-school guidance were published during the period under review. It is probably correct to say that, in most elementary schools, guidance has not emerged as a concept separate from the instructional process. This is a natural and probably a desirable state of affairs in the usual elementary-school organization, where the contacts of the pupils each year are mainly with one teacher whose daily instructional and counseling functions are closely interwoven. A few reports, however, indicate an awareness of a need for a guidance program at the elementary-school level in addition to that which is provided by the classroom teacher. Macfarlane (46), for example, reported a ten-year child guidance program undertaken at the Institute of Child Welfare of the University of California. The main purposes were to study the development of many aspects of personality and to investigate the relationships between behavior patterns and other variables. The sample consisted of 252 children and their families in Berkeley, California. Extensive records beginning with the prenatal period were collected and a combination of case history and statistical analysis was used. It was concluded that answers to questions concerning the dynamics of personality depend upon the mutual interaction of many factors. Correlations were reported between physical and mental measurements made at various age levels.

Munson (50) described the adjustment service carried on through the Bureau of Child Study of the Chicago Public Schools. Through the work of a staff of physicians, psychologists, and teachers, complete case studies are made for selected children and frequent clinics are held for diagnosing reading disabilities, behavior, and speech disorders. Nolte (52) reported a program of pupil counseling in which the Boynton B.P.C. Personal Inventory and the Torgerson Diagnosis of Pupil Adjustment were used. Fifty-two pupils in Grades V-VIII were selected for study. Both instruments proved to be of value. The causes of maladjustment were principally low intelligence, inferior home environment, and physical deficiency. The counseling of maladjusted pupils was effective in two-thirds of the cases. The importance of a full knowledge and understanding of the underlying causes of maladjustment was emphasized. The guidance program in the schools of Ann Arbor, Michigan, was described by Campbell (10). The program, which was based on a mental hygiene approach, was carried on by a staff including a psychologist, a physician, two nurses, a dental hygienist, and a mental hygienist.

Comprehensive and well-organized guidance programs in four different communities are described in Chapter III of the Nineteenth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association. Kavin (38) presented a broad philosophy of guidance and showed how this philosophy was applied to the guidance program in the public elementary schools at Glencoe, Illinois. Fike (21)

described a similar program in the public schools of Scarsdale, New York. Bresnahan (6a) outlined the guidance activities in the Boston city schools and stressed the contribution of a central school department of investigation and measurement. Perry (54) discussed individual guidance in a system of rural schools and indicated ways in which it promoted physical health, personality adjustment, scholastic interest and achievement, and the development of special talents.

Surveys of Secondary-School Guidance Programs

Some of the surveys of programs of guidance made during the three-year period were broad in scope. In one chapter of the April 1939 *REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH*, Jones, Lloyd-Jones, and Harley (37) reviewed the literature on programs of guidance and counseling for the period September 30, 1935, to September 30, 1938. The summary included higher education and out-of-school and adult programs, as well as programs of high-school guidance. A bulletin prepared by Greenleaf and Brewster (25) and published by the United States Office of Education presented summary tables and a directory of public high schools having counselors and guidance officers. Hamrin and others (27) surveyed guidance practices in public high schools and made suggestions concerning desirable practices. The conclusions of this study indicated wide discrepancy between theory and practice of guidance in high schools. Bailey (2) reported the findings of a comprehensive questionnaire survey of procedures in preparing, certifying, and selecting public-school counselors and summarized expert opinion concerning the preparation of counselors and the functions that should be expected of them. Roemer and Hoover (59) presented a summary of the responses to a questionnaire returned by sixty-four deans of boys in high school, which showed that the functions of deans in secondary schools are not well defined.

Several surveys have been concerned with guidance in certain areas or certain types of secondary schools. A study of guidance service standards in New Jersey was made by Gallagher (23). He summarized the guidance needs indicated by 1,200 high-school teachers and the reports of 153 high-school principals who were asked to fill out the "Guidance Service" booklet of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. There was marked agreement among the teachers that the school should accept responsibility for educational and vocational guidance. The report by the principals indicated that while many New Jersey high schools have admirable guidance programs, the use of psychological aids and the attention given to placement and follow-up of pupils are limited in aim and amount. McClintock (48) gave a description of guidance programs based on a free-response questionnaire sent to schools in New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. As a part of the California Youth Study, Jones (35) summarized the replies to a questionnaire returned

by guidance and counseling officers in 276 public high schools in California. The study indicated the kind of guidance given, the methods used, and the changes resulting from guidance activities. Both individual and group guidance was given by 75 percent of the schools. Jones (36) also summarized practices in vocational guidance in secondary schools as shown by replies to a questionnaire received from 397 school principals, 283 of whom were principals of public high schools. He concluded that there is wide variation in the vocational guidance programs of California schools and that while lack of materials, equipment, and personnel are a real obstacle in some schools, much more could be done with present means if the school officials studied better guidance practices and sought more accurate evaluation of the procedures used.

An extensive study of vocational guidance in Catholic secondary schools was carried on by Sister M. Teresa Gertrude Murray (51). Weak points in the guidance programs were the inadequate provision for presenting occupational information and the limited use of comparable tests. The study presented detailed recommendations for the development of vocational guidance.

Values of Certain Guidance Procedures

One of the few controlled experimental studies of diagnostic and guidance procedures was made by Fahey and Waller (19) in the Wisconsin High School. Certain standardized diagnostic instruments were used with the experimental group, and remedial procedures were then applied by trained and experienced case workers. The particular diagnostic and guidance services applied were effective in twelve of the sixteen cases, and the case workers were of the opinion that their efforts had been valuable even beyond the objective evidences of change.

An especially noteworthy follow-up study in connection with six schools was carried on by Landy and others (41) under the auspices of the Implementation Commission of the National Education Association. The purpose of the study was to discover the means by which a secondary school can get valid information about the degree of occupational adjustment of its school-leavers and clues concerning desirable changes in the guidance and educational programs of the school. The sample consisted of 914 young people, including boys and girls, both withdrawals and graduates. The youth had been out of school one and a half to five and a half years. The data were collected by means of a carefully controlled interview technic. The conclusions of the study indicated that "specific training of attitudes and habits in specific job situations with opportunity for self-direction and self-control seem to make for better adjustment on the actual job. Definite attempts at instructing youth in planning and self-appraisal (which are closely related) through such means as individual counseling, group guidance, a comprehensive testing program, and an enlistment of the entire faculty in helping to guide the pupils

are practices which seem helpful" (41:30). A manual was developed in connection with the study and was published separately (42).

Two long-time studies in which comparable tests and cumulative records were emphasized have been made available in recent years. The first was the study of the relations of secondary and higher education in Pennsylvania. A complete report of the study was made by Learned and Wood (44) in Bulletin No. 29 of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and certain projects in the evaluation of secondary-school progress were reported by Learned and Hawkes (43) in Bulletin No. 31. This exceptionally comprehensive and thorough study demonstrated beyond question the importance of cumulative objective measurement in a guidance program. The data obtained in the main study for the same students beginning in the seventh grade and extending through college brought out clearly the need for differential guidance based upon a continuous analytical study of the aptitudes, attainments, and interests of each student. The projects in evaluation of secondary-school progress as reported in Bulletin No. 31 were based on an experiment in three volunteer high schools in which the accumulation of course credits was replaced by demonstrated understanding as measured by objective tests. At the end of the high-school course, the evidence indicated that in general science, foreign literature, fine arts, history, and social studies, the experimental group was significantly ahead of a control group which had proceeded along conventional lines.

The other experiment was a public-school demonstration project in educational guidance carried on by the Educational Records Bureau (76) in seven school systems under a grant from the Carnegie Foundation. Each school system attempted to develop a measurement, record-keeping, and guidance program to fit its own situation and made use of annual tests to measure growth. There was no attempt to set up a controlled experiment or to achieve uniformity in the program of the different schools. At the end of the five-year period covered by the study, the conclusions indicated that significant improvement had been made in cumulative records, teacher training, counseling, adjustment of instruction and curriculum to individual needs, and marking and reporting. The experiment appeared to have influenced the guidance programs of other schools in the geographical area in which each experimental school was located.

Identification of Guidance Problems

One of the most comprehensive studies having implications for guidance was conducted jointly by the United States Employment Service and the American Youth Commission, and was reported by Bell (4) in *Matching Youth and Jobs*. This study showed that of the nearly two million youth who enter the labor market each year, few have had job experience and only a small percent are occupationally classifiable. The book presented in simple, practical language the nature of an occupational adjustment

program and showed how it could function through school systems and other agencies present in most communities. Patterns for local action were formulated through practical programs.

In *High School and Life*, a study carried on under the direction of Spaulding (68) in connection with the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York, there are many challenging suggestions for guidance programs. Chapter IV, "Preparation for Vocations," and Chapter IX, "Educational and Vocational Guidance," are especially significant. The picture of the status of vocational guidance in secondary schools presented by the study is not a favorable one. Large numbers of pupils on the point of leaving school have no vocational plans or have plans which are out of line with their abilities and opportunities. The success of pupils just out of school in getting jobs depends largely on luck, accidental contacts, and personality. The kinds of jobs obtained bear only a crude relation to the amount and nature of previous school-work. More than half of those who have jobs will have to leave their present employment if they are to earn enough to marry, live decently, and stay out of debt. It appears that this situation is due partly to the lack of effective guidance while the pupils are in school. High-school pupils tend to elect the subjects which in the judgment of school officers are least likely to yield valuable educational returns. More than one-half of the pupils choose their courses without having received advice from anyone. The majority of the high schools offer no assistance in educational choice. The outstanding exceptions are the junior high schools which provide seventh- and eighth-grade try-out courses. Nine-tenths of the academic high schools assume no concern for the pupils' vocational adjustment when they leave school. Usually it is only the vocational schools that take responsibility for the vocational placement of their graduates. However, programs by which pupils may be more adequately prepared for out-of-school problems are in the making in certain schools.

A book by Smith (64) helps provide a practical answer for the question of how to assist high-school students in locating jobs and preparing for them. It is based on conditions in New York City and the state of New York. In this study, the existing markets in both the professions and the trades were surveyed and the number of trained workers was estimated. The use and value of psychological testing to determine job aptitudes was discussed. Of special interest to high-school teachers and counselors preparing pupils for college is a study by Hale (26), who followed a large group of secondary-school seniors into college and analyzed their transition experiences. Among other aspects, a detailed list of problems falling under ten different types of maladjustment should be useful to personnel workers.

Descriptions of Guidance Programs in High Schools

The descriptions of programs of guidance at the secondary-school level are so numerous that it is possible in this review to do little more than give

a selected list of articles and books containing such descriptions. Fairly broad programs of educational and vocational guidance carried on in individual high schools were described by Brown (7), Davey (16), Gentry (24), Hawkins (29), Hollingshead (31), Plant (56), Simonds (63), and Stevens and Farquhar (70). Hollingshead's book describes the procedures and results of a nine-year program of socialization carried on by the faculty of the Ashland School at East Orange, New Jersey. Programs in which vocational guidance was stressed were presented by Anderson and Murphy (1), Beebe (3), Buting (9), Craf and Moffatt (14), Henry (30), Jacobsen and Davis (34), and Willis and Healey (77). Beebe's article describes an unusually well-rounded program of vocational training and placement in the Essex County vocational schools in California. Henry's article, which pertains to one aspect of the guidance work in Fort Smith, Arkansas, is unique in that it reports a cooperative program of occupational adjustment which was initiated by the businessmen.

Bostwick (6) reported a follow-up study of young people who did not go to college from the Denver Manual Training High School, one of the thirty schools participating in the Eight-Year Study of the Relations of School and College of the Progressive Education Association. She identified the kinds of vocational problems with which the students received no help. Cleland (12) gave an account of an unusual follow-up survey in Pittsburgh, in which motion pictures were taken of high-school graduates at work on their first jobs. Culbert and Smith (15) described the program of the Junior Consultation Service of New York City, sponsored by the Vocational Service for Juniors, the State Employment Service, and the local branch of the National Youth Administration. Selected guidance programs were described by Strang (74), Chapman (11), and Detjen and Detjen (13). Martens (47) presented types of clinical organization for child guidance in communities of varying size.

Surveys of Personnel Work in Higher Education

A report by Russell (60) of the Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1940, dealt in a comprehensive manner with student personnel services in colleges and universities. The report explained the need for personnel services as seen by representatives of colleges, universities, and industry; discussed the services in five institutions, including the University of Minnesota, the University of Chicago, Northwestern University, the LaSalle-Peru Township High School and Junior College, and Antioch College; and considered in detail the question of understanding students, including the kinds of information needed. The final section was concerned with the evaluation of student personnel services. Sturtevant and others (75) surveyed trends in student personnel work in colleges and universities. The position of dean of women was found to be increasing in frequency and importance. Trends toward greater use of coordinating committees, recognition of services of health officers, and emphasis upon faculty participation were observed.

Two interesting surveys of personnel work in junior colleges were reported during the period. Koos (40) surveyed the personnel program of thirty-eight public junior colleges and reported that guidance was one of the dynamic areas of junior college education. The other report consisted of a symposium on personnel work in California junior colleges (55) with articles by Grace U. Bird, Hugh M. Bell, and J. W. McDaniel. Bird summarized the responses of 26 junior colleges to a checklist of personnel practices. All the junior colleges assumed responsibility for guidance, but in general the objective data available for use in personnel work were not extensive. About half of the colleges practiced academic follow-up, and less than half of them reported employment follow-up. The self-appraisal by the junior colleges of their personnel work was summarized by Bell. Among the needs indicated by the colleges were greater clarification of objective in personnel work, determination of the information to be collected about the students and how best to record it, and articulation of the personnel program with the adjustment of the student when he leaves the college. McDaniel gave a composite picture of the junior college students themselves. At the time of admission, slightly more than half were planning courses leading to transfer to a higher institution.

The guidance programs of schools and colleges for Negroes were surveyed by Smith (66). Of fourteen representative cities, eleven had organized plans for educational guidance for Negroes and eight had programs of vocational guidance. Of eleven private colleges studied, ten had established guidance programs. Of nine state and municipal colleges, seven had guidance programs. Except in one instance, there was no evidence that any of the institutions had attempted to obtain information concerning the value of the guidance provided to the students. The author indicated a marked need for specialized training in guidance for Negro teachers.

Studies of Various Predictors and Means of Appraisal

In a study of the characteristics of successful dental students, Robinson and Bellows (58) investigated the predictive value of a variety of measures, including manual ability tests, predental point-hour ratio, the Cooperative Tests in Zoology and Chemistry, and the American Council Test for Primary Mental Abilities. The mechanical and manual ability tests and the achievement tests were found to be of some value, while the primary mental abilities tests did not prove effective as predictors of success in dentistry. Ryans (61) analyzed the data obtained in the Ninth Annual College Sophomore Testing Program and compared the obtained scores with self-appraisals of the students made on a five-point rating scale. The results of the comparison indicated that many students are very inaccurate in rating their own abilities. These findings suggest a need on the part of students for basic information concerning their own abilities and for increased use of objective technics in student personnel work.

Identification of Adjustment Problems

A report of academic adjustment problems by Smith (65) was based on careful case-study diagnoses of 173 freshman girls by eleven student deans. One hundred and twenty-six different problems were classified into eleven groups, which were arranged in order of importance according to the opinion of the girls and the student deans. Emotional problems led the list, and study methods and habits of study were second in importance. The adjustment problems of one hundred women who were graduates from colleges were surveyed by Stone (73) and the educational implications of the experiences of this group were indicated. The need for more adequate guidance was indicated by the large number of women who reported wide divergence between expectations concerning college at the time of entrance and later judgment of the values received. One of the suggestions resulting from the survey was for the establishment of vocational placement and testing bureaus for college women.

Description of Guidance Program of Institutions and Organizations

An unusual type of cooperation between colleges and secondary schools in guidance was reported by Houston (32), who described the assistance given by the Colorado Association of Educational Counselors to secondary schools in advising seniors about whether to go to college and, if so, where. The Association supplements the secondary-school guidance in several important ways. It has published a booklet for use by secondary-school and junior college officials. Descriptions of the personnel services of large metropolitan junior colleges were provided by Snyder (67) and by Brown and McCallister (8). Snyder's article emphasized the value of personnel cards. The report by Brown and McCallister dealt with the personnel program of the Herzl Junior College in Chicago.

The personnel program of the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, in which attention is centered upon the individual through various procedures, including the anecdotal record, has been reported from time to time in educational literature. A recent article by Randall (57) presented the guidance philosophy of that institution and indicated the activities which are aimed at the development of self-directing individuals. The procedures followed at Loyola University in freshman guidance were reported by Fitzgerald (22). Psychological examinations, achievement tests, aptitude tests, and English placement tests have an important place in the program. Similarly, Woolf (80), at Stephens College, discussed the work of the guidance clinic set up to help students discover aptitudes, interests, and needs. Information is gathered by means of interviews, testing, observations, anecdotal records, and reports from different departments. Case-study procedures are used extensively.

Because of the dearth of information on staff personnel research, special interest attaches to an account by Oppenheimer (53) of the research attack

upon personnel problems at the University of Louisville. The article indicates that the program of self-evaluation by the staff has caused a shift from interest in subjectmatter to interest in students. Under the direction of a committee on personnel problems, careful diagnostic studies are made of incoming students. The individual analysis is based on the American Council cumulative record for college students. Measurement with comparable tests is an important aspect of the program.

An article by Davis (17) provided one of the few accounts of the guidance of graduate students. This article describes the plan of group guidance of candidates for graduate degrees during the summer session at the University of Colorado. Specially organized noncredit courses form the basis of the program. The report comments favorably upon the results of this kind of approach to guidance at the graduate level.

Out-of-School and Adult Guidance Programs

A bulletin of the United States Office of Education prepared by Hawkins and others (23) provided a résumé of practices in guidance in use throughout the United States. The survey covers types of programs in school, locality, and state. The State Child Guidance Service provided by the California Bureau of Juvenile Research was described in a detailed report prepared by Fanton (20). In order to develop a preventive program, the Bureau has given practical demonstration of child guidance technics in various localities, hoping to lead the communities to develop similar programs of their own. A unique statewide educational counseling program was initiated recently by the University of Washington and the State College at Pullman (69). The project consisted of educational counseling of high-school seniors through a series of half-hour radio broadcasts twice a week during a six-week period. The material of the broadcasts is to be made available in permanent form in a volume entitled "The High-School Senior's Collegiate Career Book."

Various communities are recognizing the problem of the vocational guidance of out-of-school youth and adults and are making a systematic attempt to meet this need. One of the best illustrations of this type of guidance service is the work of the Emily Griffith Opportunity School of Denver as reported by Stoddard (72). The school, which serves some three thousand individuals annually, offers to out-of-school youth and adults many phases of occupational adjustment, including occupational orientation and placement. The results of the guidance and adjustment procedures are followed up continuously by instructors, coordinators, and placement officers.

A community counseling service by the Ypsilanti Board of Education, National Youth Administration for Michigan, and the director of the University of Michigan Bureau of Appointments and Occupational Information was described by Bennett (5). The service provides educational and vocational guidance for in-school and out-of-school youth and adults in the community. An evaluation study of the Adult Guidance Service of

New Haven was reported by Coe and Habbe (13). The study was based on fifty cases selected at random from the clients. The conclusions of the study were favorable to the educational and vocational guidance provided.

The development of CCC camps has created a potentially important guidance agency for out-of-school youth. A study of guidance in Camp 127, Pittsfield, Massachusetts, was summarized in a bulletin of the U. S. Office of Education (33). The purpose of the study was to determine the effect of individual guidance upon participation and quality of work in a voluntary CCC educational program. The conclusions were favorable to this type of guidance.

A survey made by Woal (79) of the job requirements of more than two thousand workers in twenty-three industries had important implications for vocational training. One of the conclusions of the study was that both the highly skilled worker and the unskilled worker are losing ground, and that the semiskilled worker is on the increase, except in the occupations of tool maker and machine setter.

Of special interest during the national emergency was a service bulletin on defense training in vocational schools (62), which outlines plans for cooperation of all important agencies in the selection of trainees for the vocational-training program for national defense workers.

Guidance Programs in Other Countries

Few studies of guidance programs in countries other than the United States were found for the period under review. MacDonald (45) described in some detail a guidance program instituted on an experimental basis in the Edinburgh educational area. Individual analyses based on information obtained by means of a variety of tests and home, school, and medical reports were undertaken. The requirements of sixty-five different occupations were surveyed by means of a questionnaire sent to employers and employees. Vocational interviews were held with two thousand young people who left school to enter some field of work.

The frequencies with which various features of a guidance program appear in Ontario Secondary Schools were surveyed by Stevens (71) by means of a questionnaire. Kidd (39) described the guidance program at Scarboro Collegiate Institute in Canada. The program included a placement service in connection with which pupils were trained in interviewing and applying for jobs. Vocational guidance work in New Zealand was discussed by Winterbourn (78) and by McQueen (49). Winterbourn sketched the historical development of vocational guidance in New Zealand and summarized the national program. He also offered a critical evaluation of the work. McQueen surveyed the vocational guidance and placement system with a view to evaluating the methods and organization adopted. He reported the use of various aids in guidance, including tests, record cards, report forms, occupational information, and case histories, and made suggestions for future guidance work in New Zealand.

Needed Research

It seems obvious that the greatest research need in this field is the careful evaluation of specific guidance technics. Surveys of present practices are helpful, but they do not show what current practices, even in the best of guidance programs, actually help to improve the educational and vocational adjustments of individuals. Briefly stated, the needs are (a) a detailed statement of guidance objectives in terms of concrete outcomes that are verifiable by objective means; (b) a clear-cut analytical statement of the procedures that may be used in arriving at these objectives; and (c) a variety of controlled experiments in which an attempt is made to apply the procedures and to appraise the results. It is useless to expect either the harried counselor, immersed in the numerous details of dealing as best he can with the problems of his advisees, or the guidance theorist, remotely enthroned in his graduate classroom, to do this type of research alone. The problem calls for cooperation among guidance experts, personnel workers, and statistically trained psychologists. It also calls for tedious and expensive long-time follow-up studies. Until such studies are made, the technics of guidance programs at all levels will continue to be limited by the lack of a sound factual foundation.

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CHAPTER VII

Preparation of Teachers and Specialists for Guidance Service¹

ARTHUR JONES

A REVIEW OF AVAILABLE MATERIAL reveals few research studies dealing specifically with preparation for guidance service. There are, however, some stimulating discussions of various phases of the problem which may well form the background for future research. In the following summary, some of the most important of these will be included.

Elementary-School Counselors and Teachers

Material on this topic in the field of elementary education is very scarce. Two studies relate to the training of teachers to deal with personality adjustments. Rivlin (17) reported that training of teachers for this responsibility is lacking. He says that the best methods should involve (a) careful selection of teachers; (b) the organization of all activities, classroom and extra-classroom, of the teacher in training so that they will contribute to the development of the teacher's own personality; and (c) special courses dealing with personality problems of children that would enable the teacher to deal intelligently with certain personality problems and make her aware of her own limitations and to know when to seek the assistance of a specialist.

In discussing the in-service training of teachers for dealing with personality problems, Koch (13) wisely said that there is no one best method of helping teachers to understand the personalities of their pupils. The initial selection of the teacher is basic. Courses in child psychology, child development, behavior problems, and guidance are only the beginning; these must be followed by in-service training. For this she suggested as valuable: lectures, reading materials, study and conference groups, case conferences, demonstration teaching, participation in preparing records and record forms, surveys, extension and summer-school courses in psychology, education, and case work.

The American Association of Visiting Teachers (2) has formulated professional requirements for visiting teachers who are now, in fact, the guidance specialists in many elementary schools. The following are the chief requirements: (a) a bachelor's degree; (b) sufficient credits in education to enable the visiting teacher to work effectively in schools; fifteen credits were suggested; (c) suggested courses in education include history and philosophy of education, progressive methods, classroom management, supervision and improvement of instruction, tests and measurements, problems of children, educational psychology, child study, psy-

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 133.

chiatry, and mental hygiene; (d) one year of teaching experience (or supervised teaching) or one year of visiting-teacher work; (e) at least one year of graduate work in an approved school of social work; and (f) at least one year of professional work in a child-guidance clinic, a family agency doing case work, or as a visiting teacher, all under competent supervision.

Another investigation, as applicable to the secondary as to the elementary field, was a questionnaire study reported by Benson and Altedener (4) on the teaching of mental hygiene in institutions for the education of teachers. Only fifty-two, or 21.7 percent, of the institutions offered a fundamental course in mental hygiene; approximately the same number gave special lectures in mental hygiene; the rest included units or incidental treatment of mental hygiene in other courses; thirteen employed a psychiatrist for instruction in mental hygiene. The case method in a teachers' college was described and illustrated by Sperle (21) and the laboratory-training program for guidance workers as offered by Bucknell University was presented by Davis (5a) as valuable methods of instruction.

Secondary-School Counselors and Deans

One of the chief reasons for the scarcity of research material on the preparation of counselors is the lack of agreement on the functions to be performed, apparent in the research material already presented in Chapter III. We must recognize the limitations of the studies already made and those now in progress, for if different conceptions of the functions of counselors are taken in making the investigations, the results cannot be effectively compared. Keeping in mind these limitations, we shall attempt to report studies of two kinds: (a) the qualifications, training, and experience of counselors who are on the job, and (b) the qualifications, training, and experience considered to be necessary by leaders in the field.

Three questionnaire studies of personnel workers in high school yield some information on training and experience. Fitch (6) obtained information from 105 counselors; Bailey (3) obtained answers from 555 of the 966 counselors, deans, and advisers in secondary schools to whom he sent questionnaires; and Sturtevant, Strang, and McKim (25) studied a group of 100 selected deans of girls in 1926 and 90 from the same group ten years later. Of the first group of counselors fifty-four reported having bachelor's degrees and twenty-eight master's degrees; of the larger mixed group only three reported having no degree whereas sixty-one held the master's degree; in the third group practically 100 percent held the bachelor's degree, and in 1936 over half, the master's degree, a decided increase during the decade. More than three-fourths of the 105 counselors had studied psychology, sociology, vocational guidance, and economics. Of these courses, they considered psychology and vocational guidance to be of special value. Almost half had taken a course in labor problems but only seven considered it of special value. The professional courses most

frequently taken by the larger group in Bailey's investigation were principles of education, principles of guidance, tests and measurements, sociology, economics, and adolescent psychology. Of the courses that had been taken, mental hygiene, technics of counseling, and adolescent psychology were judged to be most valuable; principles of education and biology of least value. In the dean's group, eighty-one had taken professional courses in some form of advisory work in addition to the more general courses in psychology and education. Almost 100 percent in Bailey's study had had teaching experience, 85 percent experience in fields other than teaching, 55 percent industrial and business experience, and 50 percent youth advisory experience. Most of the group of deans of girls had had experience as club leaders, camp and playground advisers, and other forms of advisory work outside school. Travel had entered into the experience of nearly all.

Using a modification of Charters and Waples' trait-analysis technic applied in the Commonwealth Teacher Training Study, Jones (9) studied the traits of counselors. This study involved (a) making a duty analysis of counselors, obtained from counselors in service; (b) the collection of conspicuous traits of counselors by interviews with directors of guidance or supervisors of counselors and with principals and superintendents; (c) definition of these traits in terms of trait actions; and (d) evaluation of these by competent judges. Unfortunately, the study did not progress to the point of evaluation. The traits most often indicated in this partial study are breadth of interest, cooperation, refinement, magnetism, and considerateness. These are each explained by the use of trait-action descriptions. Kitson (12) described the duties of vocational counselors, giving in detail the work of one counselor for one day. He also gave some general data on the preparation, the background of experiences, and the areas of courses taken.

A special committee of the Section on Preparation for Guidance Service of the National Vocational Guidance Association, with Jones (7) as chairman, is now engaged in two investigations that may throw some light upon the problem of preparation of counselors. As these studies are not yet completed, only fragmentary reports can here be given. One is an investigation being made by Rachel Dunaway Cox under the general direction of the committee of the Guidance Association and a committee of the Graduate School of the University of Pennsylvania. This investigation is not statistical in nature; it is not an attempt to find by quantitative methods the competencies of all counselors now employed, nor the opinions of supervisors of guidance and those engaged in the training of courses regarding what these competencies should be. It is rather a qualitative case study of personnel workers who are judged successful by at least two competent people. The methods employed are extended personal interviews, group conferences, and questionnaires. At present nearly a hundred rather complete case studies have been made which attempt to ascertain by indirect as well as by direct means the elements of strength and of

weakness in the equipment of the personnel workers. While the results are as yet quite incomplete, there are already merging certain patterns of function, patterns of competencies, patterns of thinking about the job of counseling, and patterns of need which the counselors are discovering in themselves and in their preparation. It seems probable that we shall find not a single pattern that indicates a successful counselor, but different patterns equally good and equally effective in different situations. This should have far-reaching implications for the selection, training, and certification of counselors.

Opinions on Qualifications, Training, and Experience

Many opinions have been expressed as to ways in which the selection, preparation, and certification of personnel workers could be improved. Bailey (3) employed the jury method to obtain a consensus from 147 persons—64 authorities engaged in employing and certifying personnel workers, 35 specialists in the education of personnel workers, and 48 experienced workers. The results of this evaluation are as follows:

1. Personal traits considered essential (these are in addition to traits generally considered essential for all educators: fairness, sincerity, social culture, health, etc.): sympathetic understanding of youth, emotional stability, approachability, broad scope of knowledge and interests, good judgment, and common sense.
2. Essential items of preparation and background experience: previous teaching experience, experience in meeting the public, experience in youth activities outside school, bachelor's degree, and special training in guidance. Internship experience was recommended.
3. Professional courses considered essential: thirty-two courses were listed by counselors as desirable and presented to the jury. Fourteen were judged by the jury to be highly desirable. These were in the following fields: psychology, principles of education, community relations, philosophy of education, tests and measurements, sociology, and mental hygiene.

Other writers and committees have prepared somewhat similar lists of qualifications. Paterson, Schneidder, and Williamson (15) prepared a list adapted from specifications proposed by members of the Occupational Research Program, U. S. Employment Service, and by the Division of Rehabilitation, Minnesota State Department of Education. Sturtevant and Strang (25) obtained the opinions of 159 graduate students who had earlier completed a course of professional education for personnel workers and who were then engaged in personnel work. Pierce (16) recommended certain qualifications for women deans and advisers. Fitch (6) obtained the opinion of four trained workers in the field and heads of vocational-guidance departments in certain cities and studied the certification requirements for counselors in several states and cities. Brewer (5) conducted a somewhat similar study. Smith (20), Jones (7), and Keller (11) reported the decisions of three important committees. More objective is the extensive study by Rosecrance (18) of seventy cities in which certain guidance courses were recommended by 634 guidance workers and the results of other studies by Edgerton and himself (10) regarding the qualifi-

cations, experience, and training of counselors. Emphases in these reports are briefly summarized in the following list:

<i>Personal Qualities</i>	<i>Bailey</i> (3)	<i>Paterson, Schneider, and Williamson</i> (15)	<i>Stur- tevant and Strang</i> (25)	<i>Fitch</i> (6)	<i>Keller</i> (11)	<i>Rose- crance</i> (10, 18)
Fairness.....	x
Sincerity.....	x
Social culture.....	x
Health.....	x
Sympathetic understanding of youth.....	x	x
Emotional stability.....	x	x
Approachability }.....	x	x
Friendly.....	x	x
Broad scope of knowledge and interest.....	x	x	...
Good judgment.....	x	x
Common sense.....	x
Intelligence }.....	...	x	x	x
Mental alertness }.....	...	x	x	x
Vocational interests.....	...	x
Personality.....	...	x	...	x	x	...
Leadership.....	x
Outstanding achievement }.....	x
Capacity for work.....	x	...	x
Ability to get along with people.....
Interest in guidance work.....	x
Good character and wholesome phil- osophy of life.....	x
Professional attitude.....	x
<i>Preparation</i>						
Bachelor's degree.....	x	x
Master's degree.....	...	x
Ph.D.....
Broad background.....	x
Teaching experience.....	x	x	...	x
Experience in counseling.....	...	x
Experience in meeting the public.....	x
Social work.....	x
Experience in youth activities outside school.....	x	x	...	x
Experience in working way through college.....	x
Experience in business or industry.....	x
Special education in guidance.....	x	...	x	x	x	x
Travel.....	x
Occupational research.....	x
Professional courses.....	...	x
History.....	x	...
Psychology.....	x	x	x	...	x	x
Principles of education.....	x	x	x
Labor problems.....	x	...
Community relations.....	x
Economics }.....	x	x
Social science }.....	x	x
Philosophy of education or general philosophy.....	x	x	x
Research.....	x
Tests and measurements.....	x	x	x	x
Health, biology.....	x	x
Sociology.....	x	...	x	...	x	...
Religion and morals.....	x
Mental hygiene.....	x	x	...
Counseling methods or techniques.....	x	...	x	...
Social case work }.....	...	x	x	x
Social program }.....	...	x	x	x
Group activities.....	x
Vocational guidance.....	x	...	x	...
Vocational education.....	x	...

The results of investigation show a great variety of training and experience among personnel workers in service and among the opinions expressed by leaders in the field and committees. To be most valuable such studies should distinguish, first, between personnel workers who are successful and those who are not, and, second, should consider the opportunity to secure adequate professional training. Possibly the very general and diverse nature of the training and experience reported may indicate the impossibility and undesirability of prescribing in great detail training or qualifications for all personnel workers.

The report of the Special Committee of the Section on Preparation for Guidance Service by Jones (7), already referred to, contains preliminary suggestions of desirable guidance elements to be included in the preparation of teachers and of superintendents, as well as of specialists in personnel work. These were formulated by a committee of six representing different positions and responsibilities in the field of guidance. The advice and assistance of counselors, supervisors of guidance, principals, superintendents, state education authorities, and of those engaged in preparation of school counselors was sought in this formulation. It is now in the process of more careful analysis and criticism by a larger group of those concerned. The chief differences between this formulation and most of those previously made are that the qualifications are stated in terms of characteristics, abilities, and competencies of the individual rather than as courses, semester hours, and experiences. General courses are suggested, but the emphasis is placed upon the results of such courses rather than upon the "successful" completion of a certain number of units. The second difference is that in determining the fitness of any individual who engages in or hopes to engage in counseling the "total personality" of the individual functioning in guidance situations should be considered rather than the summation of separate elements.

State Certification

Brief mention should here be made of state certification requirements for counselors and other personnel workers. Bailey (3) made a careful study of state certification. He found that five states require personnel workers in schools to have a teaching certificate with guidance as a major or minor subject. Two states provide special certificates for counselors that are not mandatory, and four states have mandatory counseling certificates. Several other states are making plans for some form of special certificate. These certificates require a bachelor's degree as a minimum and a teaching certificate. In addition, from eighteen to forty semester hours credit in subjects related to guidance are required, sometimes as part of the undergraduate work and sometimes as graduate work. Sometimes these subjects are quite definitely specified; usually only groups of subjects or fields are specifically named. These certification requirements will undoubtedly have great influence in determining the preparation of counselors.

Organized Curriculums

There has been practically no research regarding the organization of curriculums with required and sequential courses for counselors and deans. There are a few colleges and universities which have such curriculums, some of them well defined and organized. In many cases, however, they consist only of courses offered which may be taken in any order and open to teachers, supervisors, and principals, and which are based upon the requirements of the state certificate. This has made it impossible to attempt any valid evaluation of professional curriculums as such.

In considering the development of a real program of professional training for those who expect to engage in guidance service either as teachers or counselors, the suggestion of Strang in Jones' committee report (7) is well worth consideration:

... a teacher-training curriculum, including the extracurriculum, so organized that the students will experience for themselves the processes which later they will want their pupils to experience. In the course of these experiences in classes, clubs, and individual conferences with faculty who exemplify the personnel point of view, prospective teachers (and counselors) should develop socially, emotionally, and intellectually.

Recruitment of Counselors

Little study has been made of the best methods for recruiting prospective counselors. Work along this line has consisted of the statement of prerequisites for beginning the professional courses. The qualities and characteristics necessary for beginning training are usually those for the excellent teacher with emphasis upon maturity, social characteristics, and broad experience. Prediction of success as a counselor is as difficult as that for a teacher. The conditions limiting such prediction of preservice selection are summarized by Sanford (19) as follows: (a) there may be certain qualities that affect teaching that have not been isolated; (b) data for prediction have so far been based upon those who have graduated and are in service—these may not apply to the preservice period; and (c) the period of preservice itself may develop traits and characteristics not found at the beginning of the period.

Preparation of Deans of Women in Colleges

Studies in the preparation of guidance workers in college have been confined largely to a consideration of deans of women. This may be due to the fact that the functions of the deans of women in our colleges are somewhat more clearly defined than those of other personnel officers. Lloyd-Jones and Smith (14) found 166 different titles of personnel workers in college. The deans of women through their national associations have been very active in studying the functions and the qualifications of workers in their field.

Sturtevant and Hayes (23) gathered together descriptions of the work of women deans in colleges and secondary schools which also assist in forming a picture of the pattern of duties and functions of the different types of counselor. Pierce (16) studied the duties and qualifications of deans of women in colleges and made rather specific recommendations regarding their preparation. Sturtevant, Strang, and McKim (25) gathered data regarding the training and experience of deans in colleges and normal schools. The data revealed the following: Eighty-two percent had acquired master's degrees; 20 percent, doctor's degrees. The typical college woman dean in 1936 held the bachelor's degree and had done some graduate work. She had traveled extensively; she had had a variety of teaching experiences. She was apparently well equipped by training and experience to cooperate with other members of the staff.

Jones (8) in her pioneer study of women deans in colleges, while not outlining any curriculum or even naming definite courses for the training of the dean, made certain recommendations. The prerequisites for beginning the professional training are the possession of certain "temperamental characteristics"; a sound liberal education which would include a study of sociology, psychology, and philosophy of education; and a broad experience. "The training itself should consist of subject matter, practice and research related to the duties most commonly performed by deans."

Acheson (1) studied a group of college deans of women who were judged to be successful by personal associates, their presidents, and by a random sampling of students. She obtained from 2,228 seniors statements of specific words and actions of deans which made a favorable or unfavorable impression on them. Personal data were also obtained from the presidents, from the deans themselves, and from the results of measures of personality, emotional stability, adjustability to life, fair-mindedness, social intelligence, and general intelligence. The desirable factors most frequently mentioned were (a) ability to keep abreast of the modern world, (b) a sympathetic attitude, (c) skill in counseling, (d) emotional stability, (e) ability to "think straight," (f) lack of domination in relations with students, (g) a personal interest in each student, (h) a genuine desire to help each individual attain his optimum development, (i) social ability, (j) interest in student affairs, (k) ability to develop a friendly attitude in her office, (l) skill in utilizing student participation in government and in profiting by student opinion, (m) impartiality in dealing with students, and (n) the use of constructive methods in dealing with all student problems. The detailed report of overt behavior of the deans of women that made favorable and unfavorable impressions on students is very revealing. The fundamental importance of such a study of this is evident, for it deals with qualities and behavior of individual deans functioning in actual situations. It does not give specific data upon the value of different courses and experiences in the training of the dean but it should help in formulation of objectives for such courses.

Summary

The survey studies of the opinions of leaders in the field of guidance reviewed show a striking agreement regarding the characteristics, background, training, and experience that are considered to be desirable or necessary. It is difficult to determine whether this agreement is due to a careful study of the successful counselor at work or to an acceptance of the opinions of certain leaders who have set up certain criteria by which to judge the success of a counselor, who have formulated rather definite characteristics, and who have proposed certain types of training and experience. If they are received as tentative statements they are very valuable and constitute the best available basis for the training, selection, and certifying of such personnel workers. If, however, they are accepted as final they will inevitably retard rather than advance desirable professional training.

The studies of Acheson (1), Cox, reported by Jones (7), Strang (22), Sturtevant and Strang (24, 25), emphasizing as they do the qualities, characteristics, and competencies of successful personnel workers rather than the means by which these have been attained, are of great importance and must be taken as basic to any study of types of training and experience.

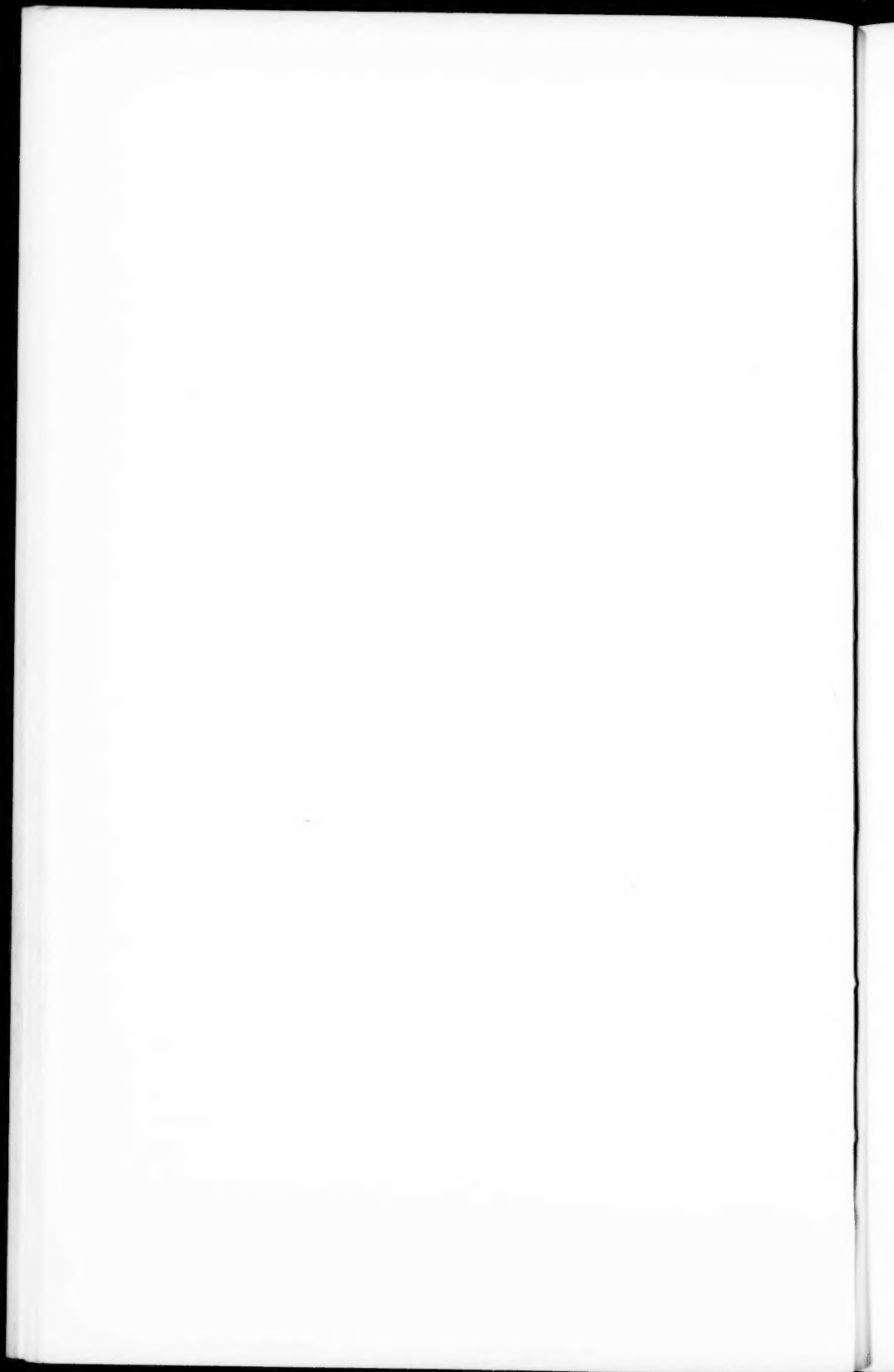
Needed Research

In general, research in the field of preparation for guidance service has been confined largely to surveys of what is now being done and to the compilation of opinions of those who are considered to be more or less expert in the field regarding what should be the qualifications of workers in the field. These compilations are very helpful, but even they often lack definiteness of purpose and sometimes show poor research techniques. Clear thinking and scientific procedures are badly needed. Among the many lines of research that should be attempted, the following may be mentioned as of major importance:

1. Further study of the patterns of abilities and competencies of successful counselors with relation to the situations in which they are functioning.
2. A follow-up study of those who have taken courses in preparation for guidance service to find what types of course and experience has been found helpful.
3. A study of the success of counselors in terms of desirable changes that have been made in individual pupils. This could then be related to courses and experiences of the counselors.
4. An experimental study of the relative effectiveness of different types of training and experience using the control group technic.

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